

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 23, 1873.

## The Week.

THERE has been a rumor during the week—since denied, however—that Jay Gould was about to retire from Wall Street, owing to impaired health and other causes. If it were true, it would cause the press considerable embarrassment. Jay Gould has long served as the great newspaper devil, who puts rival editors up to all manner of wickedness, besides causing all the trouble in the financial world. Sometimes he makes stocks too high, at other times too low, besides “locking up gold and currency,” and raising the rate of interest in wicked defiance of the usury laws, and inspiring our youth with the spirit of gambling. In fact, if we are to believe half what we hear, his day is passed somewhat as follows: Rising early, he creeps out and waters the milk of his neighbors, and steals the morning papers from their front door; and, as he goes down-town, passes off counterfeit money in small amounts in the more crowded stores. On reaching his office, he makes his combinations for running up whatever stocks rise during the day, and depressing those that fall, and for making corners in gold and greenbacks. He then goes out and tries to induce cashiers to speculate with the bank funds, and confidential clerks to forge checks and run off with the proceeds, and, returning to his desk, writes elaborate directions to the editors of the *Times*, *Tribune*, and *World* for their financial and stock articles on the following day, with criticisms on the mode in which they have carried out his directions of the previous day, enclosing, when he is well satisfied, a small *douceur*. Towards night, he spreads reports that the Pennsylvania Central, the United States Trust Co., and perhaps the Bank of England, are going to fail, and goes calmly up-town to Delmonico's, picking pockets all the way, and, after a gluttonous and solitary repast, reaches his home, and retires to bed cursing and blaspheming.

Henry Ward Beecher delivered a lecture on Monday evening which ought to do good, if the preaching of common sense in exciting times ever does any. He maintained, contrary to the cant which always begins to fill the air after a financial panic, that it is a good thing to get rich, if one can do so honestly; that, when one is rich, it is right and proper to surround one's self with beauty and comfort. In fact, the history of civilization in its best sense, as everybody ought to remember, even when Rock Island is selling at 90, is the history of the efforts of great numbers of men to make money. The great triumphs of art and literature and science have all been achieved in communities successfully striving after wealth, and not among people who lived on black broth and carried iron coins. He also made some useful remarks on the old doctrine that it is only among farmers that honest men are found, and that there is a necessary and constant connection between green fields and virtue. He said, and said truly, that of all the members of our legislatures farmers are the easiest to buy and the readiest to be seduced. Their denunciations of the railroad men as thieves and swindlers when they want them to carry their grain for a trifle are, therefore, at least immodest. There is probably more temptation withstood successfully in Wall Street in a single day than “the bone and sinew of the country” resists in ten years. There is no time when it is more necessary for us to clear our heads of cant—which is at all times one of man's first duties—than when stocks are very low and money tight. The cheap, sick-bed morality of a panic is anything but strengthening. We ought not to have to look at the money article of our morning paper in order to decide whether we shall be good through the day.

The *Economist* thinks that it is hardly possible to overestimate the good effect, in calming the panic, of telegraphic communication with Europe. It is only fair to admit, of course, that there is a drawback at times in the “echoing power” of the Cable—each money market being troubled by bad news of the other, and the bad news tending to accumulate; but the telegraph works against panics in two important ways. It has, in the first place, materially shortened the time within which assistance can be rendered; the failure of Jay Cooke & Co. was almost immediately followed by the shipment of gold from England. But, in the second place, the shipment of gold has an effect before it arrives, because the telegraph announces it, and the mere knowledge that gold is on its way is likely to allay panic and revive credit. In 1857, the crisis broke out about the end of September, but the news did not reach England till the middle of October, and this country had a whole month to live without receiving help, or knowing of its probable arrival.

Some time since, the firm of F. R. Sherwin & Co., 78 Broadway, issued confidential circulars announcing that they had opened the business of forming “syndicates” of \$5,000 each, on the same principle as those which had become so popular on the different bourses of Europe, enabling persons of small means, and those who desired only to risk a certain specific amount, to take their chances on the stock market, and at the same time to limit their losses to the amount of their shares. Each syndicate was to be composed of 100 shares at \$50 a share, and when all the shares were taken operations were to commence immediately, and to continue for a period of three months, when the syndicate would be closed, a statement made to the shareholders, and the amounts due them held on deposit and subject to their order. At or before this time, one Charles H. Phelps was engaged in the “railroad, telegraph, and express business” in the South and Southwest. In 1871, he came to New York, went into the “commission business” under the name of “Charles H. Phelps & Co.,” opened two stores, at 238 Front Street and at No. 33 Peck Slip. The only thing known about the character of his business, which lasted two months, consists of an extract from reports of certain commercial agencies to merchants, “Use great caution; on all goods sold them, or sent for sale, cash down should be had before delivery”; and the following “record,” also from commercial agency books: “August, 1871, store and offices well filled up, but no stock. October, swindling concern, and closed.” Mr. Phelps next reappeared as cashier in the State Treasury at Albany, and, availing himself of the “banking facilities” afforded by F. R. Sherwin & Co., has robbed the State of some \$150,000, by the simple process of stealing drafts and depositing them to his own account, for which offence he is now on trial.

In politics, Phelps had once been a weigher in the Custom-house, in which position he was honorably acquitted of the charge of selling offices, was removed from office by Thomas Murphy for political reasons, and was for a few months “in the Chief Clerk's office at Police headquarters.” He was appointed cashier by Raines, the State Treasurer, on the usual recommendation from a “large number of prominent citizens” of his own county. The manner in which the public business at Albany is conducted may be inferred from the affidavit of Deputy-Treasurer Paul, who swears that he signed the endorsements of two drafts prepared for him by Phelps, without looking to see to whom they were made payable. The endorsements were to one Hudson, cashier of Sherwin & Co., and Mr. Paul says he “supposed” that they were to one of the State depositaries. To make such a mistake as this without “criminal negligence” appears to us to be a physical impossibility.

The railroad question in Minnesota has been solved by an opinion of the Supreme Court of that State deciding that the legislature has the full right to fix the rates of tolls, and that it may make them reasonable or unreasonable as it pleases. What the legislature grants to a railroad is a right to take "some toll"; but if this means, as is commonly supposed, "reasonable tolls," then, the Court asks, what becomes of the right to regulate transportation, which every one admits is vested in the legislature? "The State has conferred upon the defendant (the Winona and St. Peter Railroad Company) the right to make some charge—i. e., to take some toll—not any specified rate of tolls, nor to take tolls within any designated limits, nor to take reasonable tolls. The right conferred is simply to take tolls." This is a wholesome decision, but it does not seem to us to go far enough. The country will never have any real repose until we have a double-track, steel-rail freight-road laid down from every man's door to deep water, a constitutional amendment limiting the rates on a bushel of corn from Chicago to New York to 14 cents, and all holders of "watered stock" condemned to hard labor for life.

We were wrong, it seems, in saying last week that the Senate Transportation Committee had disbanded. The Committee is still holding meetings, and its latest enquiries have been into the "terminal facilities" of New York. For the purpose of getting to the bottom of the subject, the Committee has examined the Hell Gate excavations, and explored the submarine chambers which General Neill has been making in that part of the East River. The bed of the river has been at this point almost completely undermined, and, when the work is finished, the supporting rock is to be blown away, the bed to fall, and the channel to be thus deepened. According to the newspaper reports of their visit, each member of the Committee was furnished with a torch, and, with Senator Windom at their head, they went through the chambers, and were much struck with what they saw in them. On their return to the sunlight, the reports all agree that "the talk reverted easily and naturally to terminal facilities and cheap transportation." We notice a disposition on the part of some of our contemporaries to ridicule the proceedings of this Committee, because it seems to have no definite object in view; but what of that? Its members are earnest, thoughtful, and enquiring men, and they probably understand one important branch of the cheap transportation question—that of getting themselves cheaply transported—as well as any men in the country.

The trouble which has for a long time been hanging over the farmers' movement has at last broken out in the shape of a quarrel with the Boston Grange. It was noticed at the time of the formation of this Grange that there were suspicious circumstances connected with it, and its managers are now accused of making use of its organization for political ends, an alliance with the "Loring wing" of the Republican party being suspected. This, however, is the inevitable end and catastrophe of all such movements. It has come very early in Massachusetts, because Massachusetts is not an agricultural State; but it must come in the Western States, as the farmers will discover when the legislatures meet, and the gentlemen who have been figuring during the summer as farmers' candidates take their seats at the various State capitals as full-blown politicians.

The Treasury has insisted upon it that the square flat-bottomed boats or scows carrying coal on the canal between the Pennsylvania mines and the port of Wilmington, are boats requiring to be furnished with enrolments and licenses, and the Custom-house officials have seized several boats belonging to poor men, and subjected them to heavy expenses. The matter has been carried into the Federal district courts, where the Government has been beaten in three

several cases in three different courts; taken up to the circuit court on appeal, where the Government has been again beaten, with costs. Nevertheless, the following extraordinary order to the Custom-house has been issued from the Treasury: "The Department has been informed that the judges of the district courts of the United States for the eastern district of Pennsylvania and the district of Maryland have decided that canal-boats are not required by law to be provided with enrolments and licenses. This Department *does not acquiesce in their decisions*, but holds that such boats must be provided with the documents in question, or pay 'alien tonnage tax' of one dollar per ton, under Section 6, Act of February 18, 1792, upon coming out of a canal into the navigable waters of the United States." In other words, the Secretary of the Treasury formally announced his intention to disregard the decisions of the courts of law, and continue to levy a tax which they had pronounced illegal. The counsel for the boatmen, thereupon, prepared articles of impeachment against him, and reported him to the President, reminding the latter that he had felt called upon to overturn the State government of Louisiana by force of arms, through reverence for the orders of a drunken Federal judge in New Orleans—orders, too, which a majority of the Judiciary Committee of the Senate had pronounced unauthorized and void. This brought out Mr. Richardson with a disavowal of the letter, which he said was the work of a subordinate, and unauthorized by him. This, of course, ends the matter; but the public will hardly be satisfied with the excuse. That a Treasury subordinate should, in the absence of his chief, dare to declare that the Department did not "acquiesce" in the decisions of the United States courts, and order Custom-house officers to disregard it, seems most extraordinary; but, besides giving one a queer idea of Treasury discipline, it is another natural consequence of the glaring disregard of law of which both Mr. Richardson and Mr. Boutwell have from time to time been guilty in their administration of the national finances.

When the Samana Bay Company acquired its franchise in San Domingo from President Baez, last winter, we predicted (Jan. 23, 1873) that "the next thing would be to get the United States in some manner involved in the affair, so as to compel it to take possession of the Dominican Republic." We confess, however, that we had no idea that the "next thing" would occur so soon. It now appears that Baez, the patriot who was ready to sell his country to the United States two years ago, has not even the power to defend the Company to which he has granted such wonderful privileges. The barbarous population of the interior are now in arms against him, and threaten to descend on Samana Bay and "clean out" the intruders, as they regard them, to whom he has conveyed so much of Dominican soil. Nothing is more natural, and we were going to say more proper. Were we Dominicans, we should, during the fruit season, harass the Company incessantly. But the Company not unnaturally resists this interference, and Dr. Howe, and Mr. Fabens, and Mr. O'Sullivan have come to Washington to urge the Government to protect them. We trust there is no occasion to protest against the Government doing anything of the kind. We have neither men nor money to spare for any such enterprise. The Company well knew what its risks were when it took its charter. Moreover, it obtained among other concessions from the Baez Government the right to maintain an army and navy. It is fair to expect, therefore, that it will imitate its great prototype, the East India Company, and defend itself against the barbarians sword in hand. If it does, we shall all be proud of it. A very small force of enlisted men, under another Clive, would soon send the enemies of the Company flying through the palms and flowers, over the "ever-flowing brooks," and even drive them into the "ever-tepid crystal seas," which Dr. Howe described to us in his letter announcing the formation of the Company. Indeed, Clive would have been up in the mountains by this time after the enemy, in light marching order, full of yams and bananas and fight.



Apparently, the official count of the vote will be required to determine whether Mr. Allen or General Noyes is elected Governor of Ohio, but as we write, the probability seems to be that General Noyes is defeated by a handful of votes, running a little behind his ticket, the rest of which is now believed to be elected, while Mr. Allen runs a little ahead of the other Democratic candidates. This result has caused some surprise, and explanations are naturally numerous. The truth appears to be that a very large number of voters who usually act with the Republican party have been so much disgusted with the revelations of the past few months that they would not go to the polls. In the public conduct of the party magnates from President Grant and Mr. Jay Cooke down to Mr. Charles H. Phelps, there has been nothing to incite citizens to take trouble for the purpose of keeping the party in power. The voters therefore stay at home in large numbers, and in the districts where the Republican majorities have been heaviest the falling off is the plainest to be seen. As to how much of a Democratic revival this is to be called, there is a wide difference of opinion, our own, we are free to say, being that the question is one hardly worth discussing; but that there will be some abatement of Republican insolence it is quite safe to predict. A result of this contest which will not be regretted by many people outside of Ohio is that, the Democrats having got control of the Legislature, Mr. Thurman will be retained in his seat in the Senate, where, as is generally admitted, he does good service. The effect on our New York politics of General Noyes's defeat and the reduction of the Republican majority in Iowa and its total disappearance in Oregon, will probably be seriously damaging to the Republican candidates.

Stokes is being tried a third time for the murder of Fisk, and there seems a greater probability now of his escape than ever. The good effect of delay in a trial of this sort was well illustrated by the appearance on the stand of a new witness for the defence, one Patrick Logan, a Catholic policeman, who had been discharged from the police force in 1871 for refusal to do his duty during the Orange riots, and who was consequently nominated by his friends for the Assembly. He swears that some of the principal witnesses for the prosecution confessed to him that they were tampered with, and he tells his story in a straightforward way, but it does not seem really to amount to much, for it consists simply in the fact that the witnesses learnt their testimony by heart, which is not an uncommon thing for witnesses of a low order to do, and that they "expected" to get a great deal of money, though it does not appear that they were ever promised any. Still, the evidence makes a great deal of impression. If the trial lasts long enough, we may reach a point where it will be doubted whether Fisk ever was killed at all.

The Opposition in Canada have gained a great victory in the Pacific Railway scandal, and forced the Government to throw up the contract out of which the scandal grew. Considering the amount of money involved, and the magnitude of the political interests bound up with the Pacific Railway scheme, this victory deserves to be recorded in brass as a monument, even in these latter days, of the power of public opinion when founded on justice and truth. The Government appointed the court of investigation, subpoenaed the witnesses, and conducted the examination, strenuously denying the charges throughout. We observe that it is now said the abandonment of the contract was a foregone conclusion from the beginning, but there are always such foregone conclusions at the end of a battle. The English press has generally denounced the corruption practised by the Dominion Government, and the *Saturday Review* has again drawn upon itself, in consequence of its denunciation, the old reproach of being a "cynical Tory organ." As troubles never come single, Sir John Macdonald will be embarrassed at the next session by the presence, as a delegate from Manitoba, of M. Louis Riel, who some three years since was the head of

a rebellion in that region, and as such put to death a British subject, and thus caused a price to be put upon his own head. He has since been nominally an outlaw, although the Opposition press have long affirmed that Sir John Macdonald was bound by a private agreement, made with the French party, to condone Riel's offence. This Sir John has denied, even appealing publicly to the Searcher of all hearts to bear him witness that he very much wished to catch the Provisional President, so-called, and bring him to trial for "foully murdering Thomas Scott after a mock trial." But it is now confessed that, at the time of making this appeal, Sir John, the late Sir George Cartier, and the Government generally, were under a pledge that Riel should not be harmed. Altogether, Canadian politics do not improve on inspection, however we look at them.

Castelar is doing all that he can do to restore order in Spain. He has not only "called out the reserves," which may mean something or nothing, but has fixed death or perpetual imprisonment as the punishment of mutiny, and he has restored all the artillery officers who resigned on account of the Hidalgo affair to their old rank in the service. His proposal to convert the public debt by substituting six per cents at forty for the present bonds, has been rejected by the Committee of Spanish bondholders in London, who ask for security. In the meantime, the insurgent fleet continues its antics along the coast. The Government squadron, under a new admiral, has retired before it, and at the date of the latest advices it was off the harbor of Valencia, threatening the town with bombardment, and troops were going from Madrid to assist in the defence. The foreign admirals, however, insist on ninety-six hours' notice to enable foreign residents to make their escape, and it is hardly probable that Contreras, the Intransigente leader, will either feel that he can wait so long, or that it would be safe to begin sooner. The last despatches make it likely that he will take his departure, if he can get supplies from the shore.

There is a variety of opinions about the chances of the Monarchy in the French Assembly. M. Léon Say, who is a knowing man, says the Republicans will have a majority, while M. John Lemoine, who is also a knowing man, predicts the restoration as certain on the opening of the Assembly. M. Lemoine's opinion, however, seems on the whole more likely to be correct. The Monarchists declare they are sure of their game, and they would hardly push forward their arrangements with so much boldness if they were not. There is also a variety of stories about these arrangements. One is, that the crown will be offered to the Comte de Chambord, who will accept it, and with it a constitution and the tricolor, and pending his arrival will appoint MacMahon Lieutenant-General with full powers. Another is, that if modern ideas are more than the Count can swallow, he will abdicate immediately after his arrival at Versailles, and the Comte de Paris take his place. In the meantime, the Duc d'Aumale, who is popularly, and probably correctly, supposed to be the guiding mind of the Orléans family, is, as our politicians say, "laying low"; and he is, in appearance at least, wholly absorbed in the Bazaine court-martial, of which he is president, and apparently takes no part or interest in the monarchical movements. In the meantime, he presses poor Bazaine hard in that cross-examination to which every French culprit is subjected, and probably is none the less zealous for the fact that he is probing Imperialism as well as convicting the Marshal. The latter stands the cross-examination badly, and in fact, if the telegraphic summary is to be believed, has already admitted that during the siege political considerations weighed a good deal with him in making his military plans, and in particular the consideration that the Government at Paris was what he called "an insurrectionary government." But there is the testimony of Marshal Lebœuf that his (Bazaine's) responsibility did not begin till August 12; that is, that up to that date the Emperor was in command.

## THE APPROACHING ATTEMPT TO RID US OF AN ELECTIVE JUDICIARY.

THE people of the State of New York will be asked at the next election to say whether the experiment of an elective judiciary which they set the example of trying twenty-seven years ago has proved satisfactory, and whether they are now willing to go back to the old method of appointment. The question is perhaps as important a one as has ever been submitted to them, but it is a curious and instructive fact that neither of the political parties now in the field says one word about it in its platform. It is all the more curious and instructive because the doings of the Republican Convention were substantially regulated, and the platform drafted or approved, by Senator Conkling, who is talked of as a candidate for the Supreme Court of the United States, and whom his followers have of late been exhibiting to the public as a model politician. When the expediency of prolonging the terms of the judges was submitted to the people two years ago, the political managers in like manner abstained cautiously from lending it any countenance, and in this city absolutely failed to supply ballots for a vote on it, and would have defeated it in other parts of the State if they had not overestimated the popular indifference to it. There is nothing very surprising in this, when we remember that the election of judges for short terms has made an enormously valuable addition to the "spoils" which each party has to divide after the victory, and that the removal of the judges from the arena of party would considerably diminish the excitement and attraction of the politician's trade.

In the absence of all support from the regular party machinery, of course the zealous attention of the mass of good citizens who have no interest in spoils to the proposed amendments is all the more necessary for their success, and to this class Mr. Dorman B. Eaton appeals in a pamphlet on the history and results of the election of judges in this State, which ought to be in everybody's hand, and which we cordially commend to the perusal of every thinking man. The story Mr. Eaton tells is familiar enough to most inhabitants of this city at least, but there are some points in it which are both novel and suggestive. One is the manner in which the change in the mode of selecting judges was brought about in 1846. It was one of the greatest changes in the political history of the race, for it threw aside that ideal of the judicial position which had for four centuries been one of the most prominent objects in the great movement for limiting the authority of the crown, out of which nearly all of what are called constitutional principles have grown; and it even promised, as the commonest experience of human nature must have told everybody, to produce very startling modifications in the relations of the courts to the community at large. Nevertheless, the portion of the report devoted to it only occupied two pages, and the reporter, Mr. Ruggles, only said a few words about it. The most eminent members of the Convention opposed it, but the politicians did not even give themselves the trouble to debate it. It was carried on a pure theory evoked from a few Jeffersonian breasts, and so exactly adapted was it to the peculiar needs of managers and wire-pullers, that here in New York, where its evils have almost disgraced human nature, the Democratic managers now openly oppose any return to the older and better system, and the Republicans scarcely say a word in its favor. The *World* inveighs against any change. The *Tribune*, of the leading city papers, is left almost alone to advocate a recurrence to the mode of selecting judges which made the New York bench one of the glories of American law and letters—and this in just one year after the conviction of Barnard, the death of McCunn, and the flight of Cardozo. So lightly does our shame sit upon us, and so little impression has been made by one of the plainest experiments ever tried by a political community.

If everything that has been said in favor of an elective judiciary were true, there would still remain these two inherent evils in the system—first, that it inevitably tends to the selection of second-class instead of first-class lawyers for the bench; second, that it makes the same man a poorer judge than he would have been if he had not been dragged through the mire of a political convention and

the dust and turmoil of a popular election. It is asserted, and it cannot be denied, that in some portions of the State the judicial nominations have been controlled by the bar, that no gross abuses have happened, and that generally very respectable gentlemen, of unquestionable legal ability, have been placed upon the bench. Hence it is an easy inference to the local reasoner that "the system seems to work well." Conceding that it does, we concede nothing more than that in those judicial districts where litigation is least in amount and least in importance—where, in short, the judiciary is the least tried—there the elective system does in a measure approximate to the old system, which died in 1846 with a reputation not only unblemished but exalted. The fact remains that the tendency of the present system—that is to say, the tendency of a political convention—is to select candidates for the bench from among the pretentious, the plausible, the obtrusive, the speech-making members of the bar, and to overlook those quiet, diligent, unobtrusive characters which are peculiarly the material out of which judges should be made. The additional fact also remains that the best members of an elected judiciary would be better judges—more independent, fearless, and impartial, so far as their individual character is involved—more respected and influential, so far as their official functions are concerned—if they had not been subjected to the officious zeal of personal friends, the condescension of political managers, and the calumny and detraction and criticism that make a part of every election. In every country, and in none more so than in our own, it is essential to the usefulness of the judiciary, to its moral power, and, in matters of right, to its controlling influence, that it be composed of good men, who, in addition to their subjective merits, shall be invested with the official attribute of being believed in. It is beyond the powers of human nature to allow its politicians of the baser sort, its Bohemians of the press, to pelt the candidate with mud during the campaign, and then believe that his new ermine will for ever remain unsullied because he had the most votes, and succeeded, notwithstanding the mud, in getting upon the bench.

The selfishness of human nature is probably nowhere more clearly illustrated than in the local selfishness of communities. It was this selfishness of locality which was the chief impediment in the framing of the Constitution, and which came so near defeating the consummation of the Union. It is the same selfishness which to-day is endeavoring to dishonor the State by keeping up a system which directly degrades her judiciary, and which has proved a grievous wrong to three-fourths of her people. There are men really thinking themselves upright and respectable, proud of being citizens of so great a State, yet who are ready to connive at maintaining a system which, more than all other things, has tended to make the name of New York infamous throughout the civilized world, and who have no other justification to offer than that the evil does not directly affect themselves. Of course such reasoning is fallacious, and demonstrates not only a moral turpitude but a logical obtuseness. No district can isolate itself and be long independent of a prevailing evil. The degradation of a part of a community cannot be confined to the part for ever. And when the part thus affected really embraces a majority of the population, three-fourths of the judicial business, and all of the centres of trade, commerce, and manufactures, it is very clear that the remotest district must catch something of the contagious influence. After the frightful warning we have had, the judicial ordeal through which we have passed, and the cruel wrongs that have been inflicted by that branch of our State government which all civilization designates as the bulwark against wrong and oppression, any man who from fancied isolation can say that the evils of an elective judiciary are no concern of his, has certainly something wrong in both intellect and moral nature.

So far as facts are involved, it is idle to rehearse them. Facts, such as have not disgraced our Anglo-Saxon civilization for two or three hundred years, if there was ever a parallel to them, have been spread before the public everywhere by the press, and authenticated by official investigation. We may, however, say that while the evil



was intensest in this city, and was brought out by a persistent bar and a powerful metropolitan press, it has not been confined to the city. It is true that here the abuses actually reached the enormity of becoming a system, but weak judges, improper influences, and a partial administration of both civil and criminal justice, have occurred elsewhere under our elective system, and so frequently and to such an extent that the system is properly chargeable with them. How hard it is to establish such charges, how tardy and timorous the bar is about making them, we have all seen demonstrated here, where the burden had become unbearable. But how many wrongs have fallen in isolated cases upon the weak and the poor and upon the community where criminal jurisprudence is involved, nobody can surmise. We all believe that there have been bad judges upon the bench out of the First Judicial District, but not bad enough or bold enough to arouse the necessary storm which seems a condition precedent to official punishment.

If any man can persuade himself that "what has been" is exclusively the fault of this community, and not of the elective system, and that it need not happen again, let him seriously look at the inherent advantages and disadvantages of the two systems. First let him apply to them the tests of success and failure. The old system gave us sometimes great jurists and always good judges. Such men as Livingston and Kent and Spenser, it is true, are not to be found every day by any system, and will be regarded by most persons as peculiarly men of their time. No system can be expected to create great men, and we can ask nothing more than that it shall select the best. This the system by appointment did, its latter days showing no decadence, but yielding judges to whom the bar now looks back with reverence, of whom it will be sufficient to name Jacob Sutherland, Samuel Nelson, Greene C. Bronson, and Reuben H. Walworth. The new system has not only given us Barnard and Cardozo, but Fisk and Tweed and Mills and Carlton and Phelps. The crop of embezzlements and defalcations and frauds which we are reaping flourishes, as it always has done and always will, under the favoring influence of a weak or corrupt judiciary, to say nothing of the vulgar crimes committed by ward politicians and men of "influence." By the elective system we notify the rogues in the community that the judiciary is weak; that they have a certain hold upon it; that they may bestow favors, which is tantamount to expecting favors; and that "men of influence" who make judges will in case of necessity be able to say something to them. That such expectations are absurd in the majority of cases does not mend the matter. If we build the judicial system so low that every vagabond in the community by merely reaching out his hand can directly touch it, we make it more or less accessible to men who ought to look up to it as something altogether beyond their reach.

In the next place should be considered the matter of reappointments. Since the elective system began, now about twenty-five years, the ablest judges in the State, with hardly an exception, have been dropped from the judicial roll. Some have been defeated in conventions, others at elections, and a few have been too much disgusted with a first election to submit to a second. Such losses have always been a matter of regret to the better portion of the community, but a matter beyond control. An individual responsibility in selecting would go a great way toward preventing such losses in the future. The moral power of the community will reach a Governor when it will be a harmless blank-cartridge for a convention.

We may next note the fact that conventions, although imbued with all the wisdom of all the people, are not deliberative bodies. Assuming that every delegate leaves home with the most patriotic emotions in his heart, and the best of candidates in his mind's eye, it is still possible that when he reaches the convention he will find his candidate withdrawn, or objectionable to the majority, or unknown to everybody but himself. There is no time then for consideration or enquiry; an immediate choice is necessary; he cannot go home and write letters to the leading lawyers for their opinions before he decides; and it follows that he takes the candidate whose "friends" are most active and numerous. Finally, the Governor

and Senate are in this matter a responsible somebody. Conventions are the nobodies of political life. They come and go, doing much political mischief, but never can be held to a responsibility reaching beyond the next election. Individual responsibility for a bad judge is a load which no man will lightly put upon his own shoulders. But responsibility shared among a mass of men we all know to be worthless; and experience indicates that conventions are as soulless as corporations.

#### THE PAYMENT OF INTEREST ON DEPOSITS.

NOW that the public has time and inclination to study the causes of the late disastrous financial panic, it is well to ask if the investigation shows any defect in our national-bank system which Congress can properly be requested to correct. It is evident that such a defect, susceptible of correction in such a way, can be: it once named: it lies in the custom of allowing interest on deposits in national banks made by persons or by other banks; and the remedy is the prohibition by Congress of the payment of such interest.

The Comptroller of the Currency, in his report for 1872, has so clearly stated the matter (pp. xix.-xxi.) that we cannot do better than to quote his words—words which seem almost prophecies in the light of the events of the past month:

"The act requires that the country banks shall hold an amount of reserve equal to fifteen per cent. of the entire amount of their deposits and circulation, three-fifths of which reserve may be on deposit with national banks which are their agents in redemption cities. The national banks in the redemption cities must hold a reserve of twenty-five per cent., one-half of which may be on deposit with national banks in New York City."

The reserves of the national banks out of New York have been so largely held in that city that these New York banks held deposits during most of the year 1872 equal to more than one-fifth of the capital of all these outside banks. These deposits are "attracted thither largely by the payment of interest" on them. As the Comptroller adds:

"The banks in the city have no legitimate outlet for these funds, and are therefore threatened with loss. . . . The Stock Board takes advantage of this condition of affairs, speculation is stimulated by the cheapness of money, and a market is found for the idle funds upon doubtful collaterals, and the result is seen in the increased transactions at the Clearing-House, which, during the past year, exceeded thirty-two thousand millions of dollars, or an average of more than \$100,000,000 daily, not one-half of which was the result of legitimate business; the total amount of transactions being greater than that of the Bankers' Clearing-House of the city of London."

We have cited the Comptroller as being the highest authority, and also with the intent to recognize the fact that he has already pointed out this radical error; later, we will speak of the remedy he suggests. The danger, he foresaw, was in the dealings between banks. Thus, a bank in Boston or Philadelphia ought to keep a reserve in greenbacks equal to twenty-five per cent. of its liabilities. But on this amount it can earn no interest. The law now allows it to put one-half of these greenbacks on deposit with a New York bank, which will allow it generally four per cent. interest. The receiving bank must, however, lend this money to obtain where-withal to pay the interest to its depositor, and so it places three-quarters of it among its other loans. The Boston bank, therefore, instead of holding a reserve in greenbacks equal to one-quarter of its liabilities, has but one-eighth *sure*, and the other one-eighth is loaned through its agent. That is, if the New York bank does no other business, it is useless to call this reserve a real one; and if the New York bank does receive other deposits and do other business, the Boston bank must take its chance with the other creditors.

Undoubtedly, the provision of the law was supposed to refer primarily to money kept by outside banks in New York for the redemption in greenbacks of their own particular bank-bills. Experience has shown that this supposed necessity of redemption does not exist. As a rule, every one is as well satisfied with a national bank-bill as with a greenback, and no redemption is asked. But this bait of the payment of interest on the reserve has served to draw all the unemployed money of the country to New York, since the system of payment has been extended to all other deposits. We will, therefore, look at the larger question of the payment of interest by the banks to their individual depositors. In all the larger cities this custom

has gained ground rapidly during the past two years. An ambitious bank president aims to earn more than seven per cent. for his stockholders. He desires large deposits, because his bank receives the profits on the loans based upon them. But with competition between the banks there comes the necessity of dividing earnings with the depositor by allowing him some interest on his money, and then, as we shall see, the functions of the bank are radically changed. Very soon, indeed, the margin of profit is passed, and the banks make no money by thus obtaining deposits. If they have paid their depositors four per cent. on the whole, and could loan only three-quarters, they have paid really  $5\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. on the part they could loan. Their profit was only on the difference between  $5\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. and the rate at which they made loans—say  $7\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. In other words, if a depositor left \$100,000 with them for one year, they ran all the risks of employing it for \$2,000, out of which must come taxes and expenses. The result of this system has been to prepare the way for just such a panic as we have seen. The depositors, receiving a very reasonable rate of interest, have allowed their money to lie in the banks, which have been obliged to force their loans upon their borrowers in dull times, and, consequently, to take dubious securities in order to earn the interest they had covenanted to pay. When the crisis of a panic came, these large depositors saw chances for investments, and so called in their loans, or were themselves panic-stricken, and rushed in for immediate payment, so as to hoard greenbacks.

In point of fact, by the payment of interest on deposits, the national banks had become "savings-banks for capitalists" on a large scale. Unfortunately, they were not protected by those wise rules which prevent an ignorant multitude from making a run on "savings-banks for small deposits," and, moreover, their modes of investment were far more dangerous than those employed by the regular savings-banks. In truth, during the September panic, the populace behaved with a judgment and decorum most creditable to them, when the millionaires were precipitating a general ruin in the attempt to draw their deposits from their savings-banks. Now, there is clearly no necessity for the national banks to take up the savings-banks' department. They earn enough money without trying to gain more by borrowing money to lend again. So much for their rights in the matter. Again, it is not a matter of necessity that they should take this agency branch of business as a public benefit. If the capitalist could not obtain interest on his deposits from his bank, he would make his own investments, or he could easily obtain a proper agent. With ordinary savings-banks the case is different; the earnings and savings of the poor must be collected and combined before they amount to enough to afford to pay the agents who invest them. But the depositors in national banks are not of this class; they can obtain agents elsewhere, and in no sense need to employ these banks for this purpose. It is, too, for the public interest that all the natural increment of property should be invested in substantial property; and this is usually best done by its employment in fostering local improvements and constructions, or in aiding legitimate manufactures and commerce. In simpler words, it is better that Brown's surplus means be employed in building houses or in aiding his neighbor's trade or manufacture than in margins on Wall Street. Besides, as the banks are entrusted with the important and delicate duties not only of distributing capital among proper borrowers, but of maintaining the popular confidence in our circulating medium, it is unwise, imprudent, and highly reprehensible for them to undertake other functions, as those of savings-banks, either for the pecuniary gain to themselves or for the convenience afforded to the capitalist.

Is there any doubt, therefore, not only of the impropriety of this custom, but of the right method of its prevention? A brief amendment to the existing law, and one certainly within the powers of Congress, can stop it at once. If the national banks be prohibited from allowing any interest on any and all deposits, the banks in the large cities will keep their whole reserve at home in greenbacks, and the capitalist will find some mode of investment without invoking

the aid of the local banks. This one amendment to the law will go a great way towards curing the defects of the system. The Comptroller, indeed, says that this payment of interest on deposits is "an old-established custom, which cannot easily be changed by legislation." This objection can have little weight, since our national banks are peculiarly the creatures of legislation, and since there can hardly be any strong ground of objection to the abolition of this custom. The remedies proposed by the Comptroller are, either to limit the loans of banks to thrice their capital, or to have part of the reserve kept in Government stock at a low rate, say three per cents. The first is surely a more violent remedy than the one we propose, and we doubt if it would be as efficient. The other, of course, has no bearing upon our dangers in panic times, as what is wanted then is a reserve of greenbacks, not bonds.

We may fairly say, then, that Congress has a duty to perform when it meets again, and that is to prohibit at once the payment by national banks of interest on deposits. In other words, it has to admonish the national banks that they are not savings-banks, and cannot be allowed to try to act as such.

## Correspondence.

### SOME LITERARY COINCIDENCES.

#### TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On turning over the leaves of Mary Clemmer Ames's recently published 'Ten Years in Washington,' I was struck by the remarkable coincidence between the style and matter of certain chapters thereof and sundry magazine and newspaper-articles on the same topics which have from time to time appeared. The resemblance is doubtless purely accidental, as there is no acknowledgment of Mrs. Ames's indebtedness to the authors of these articles in the preface to her book, nor the customary use of inverted commas in the chapters where the coincidences occur. As most persons have a strong zest for "literary coincidences," I venture to lay before the readers of the *Nation* some of the most striking of those to which I have referred:

FROM 'THE UNITED STATES TREASURY DEPARTMENT.' BY COLONEL THORPE, IN *Harper's Magazine* FOR MARCH, 1872.

"The first official act of the Treasury Department of national interest, dated at Washington, was one of great prospective importance. It directed that the Secretary should make an annual report to Congress of the state of the finances of the nation, embracing estimates of the public revenue and expenditures, as well as plans for improving and increasing the revenue." (Page 490.)

"The Administration of Albert Gallatin was distinguished by a series of reports regarding the best method of cancelling the national debt, the proper policy of disposing of the public lands, and the legality and necessity of establishing a national bank." (Page 491.)

FROM 'AN HOUR AMONG THE GREENBACKS.' *Scribner's Monthly* FOR APRIL, 1873.

"Through this division, and under these skilful fingers, has passed every note, whether legal-tender or fractional, which has been issued by the United States since the beginning of the rebellion—every note which we have ever handled or seen—as well as all the gold notes, and many millions of imperfect bonds and notes which were never put in circulation. . . . The notes, after having been counted, are secretly put up—the legal tenders in strong paper wrappers and the fractional currency in stout paper boxes—sealed, placed in a capacious hand-cart, and trundled away to the vaults of the cash divi-

FROM 'TEN YEARS IN WASHINGTON.'

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FROM 'TEN YEARS IN WASHINGTON.'

"Through the fingers of these ladies has passed every note—legal-tender or fractional—which has been issued by the United States since the beginning of the war of the rebellion. Every note ever touched or seen, with all the gold notes and the millions of imperfect bonds and notes never put in circulation—every one has passed through these same deft fingers. . . . As soon as the new money is counted, it is again put away—the legal tenders in strong paper wrappers, the fractional currency in paper boxes. All are sealed, put on a hand-cart, and rolled off to the vaults of the cash division,



sion, whither we will now follow them." (Pages 639, 660.)

FROM 'WHERE THE MONEY GOES.'  
BY S. M. B., IN THE CHICAGO  
Inter-Ocean, JULY 30, 1873.

"After the dreadful days of October, 1871, 203 cases of burnt money were sent to the Treasury from Chicago, aggregating, according to owners' valuation, \$164,997 98 legal-tenders, National, State banks, and fractional notes, bonds, certificates, and coupons, internal revenue and postage stamps burned . . . all so shrivelled, charred, and defaced, that the fragments crumbled at the touch, and defied unaided eyesight. A committee of six ladies was selected to identify these notes. Infinite patience, extreme care, experience, and good sight, made sharper by long practice, were the requisites, and their success was the best proof of their qualifications."

"To this furnace, lined with shavings beforehand, the boxes, sealed in the Register's and Secretary's bureaus, and those sent by the committee of three, are brought. Here, in presence of the burning committee, the seals are broken, the complicated locks opened, and the packages are thrown in, each 'lot' being called and checked off by the committee, the average being about \$1,500,000 every other day. Besides the cancelled money, internal revenue and postage stamps, checks, and new money defectively printed, are all burned in this furnace. About \$100,000 National bank-notes are burned in another, smaller and separate."

And so on, with greater or less similarity, for three or four chapters. I have not explored current literature in this direction sufficiently to say whether the same remarkable parallelism extends to any other articles on the subjects of which the book treats; but enough has been quoted to prove either some very wonderful "literary coincidences" or that the acknowledgments in Mrs. Ames's preface should be considerably extended.

WASHINGTON, D. C., October 13, 1873.

#### THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE MONEY PAID UNDER THE GENEVA AWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You have recently referred with approval to the article in the last number of the *American Law Review* containing a strong argument in support of the claims of insurance companies and others to the money recently paid to our Government by Great Britain under the Geneva Award. When the question is argued as in that article, and previously in other articles in your own columns, upon the legal principles which would apply in an analogous case between individuals, the position of these claimants would seem to be unassailable. But in the consideration of this question we are not necessarily confined to legal principles or legal analogies. The rules of law, though originally devised in the interests of justice, do not always lead in their application to the most equitable results, and I have been led seriously to doubt whether in this matter the legal view be the true one, and whether a less technical and more rational treatment of the question may not lead to an answer very different from that given in the articles above referred to. With the parties who have advocated the retention of the fifteen millions in the national treasury, and with the arguments advanced by those parties so far as they have come to my knowledge, I have felt but little sympathy; but it has seemed to me that there were other arguments, hitherto, so far as I know, not clearly and fully presented, which may show the position taken by those parties to be sounder and more respectable than it has hitherto appeared to be, perhaps even to themselves. At all events, whether the arguments

whither we still, you and I, pursue our little dollar." (Cap. XXXII., page 328.)

FROM 'TEN YEARS IN WASHINGTON.'

"After the great Chicago fire, in 1871, cases of money to the value of one hundred and sixty-four thousand nine hundred and ninety-seven dollars and ninety-eight cents were sent to the United States Treasury for identification. They consisted of legal-tenders, National State bank [sic] and fractional notes, bonds, certificates, and coupons, internal revenue and postage stamps, all so shrivelled and burned that they crumbled to the touch, and defied unaided eyesight. All these charred treasures were placed in the hands of a committee of six ladies for identification. What patience, practice, skill were indispensable to the fulfilment of this task, it is not difficult to conjecture." (Cap. XXXIV., page 351.)

"To this furnace, filled with shavings in advance every day, comes the 'burning committee,' bearing the boxes of doomed dollars, sealed finally in the Register's and Secretary's bureaus. . . . In their presence the final seals are broken—the complicated locks of the furnace opened. Then the packs are thrown into the flames, each 'lot' being called and checked by the committee, the amount averaging about one million five hundred thousand dollars every other day. At the same hour, about one hundred thousand dollars in National bank-notes are burned at another and smaller furnace. Besides cancelled money, internal revenue and postage stamps, checks and defective new money are all consumed in this furnace." (Cap. XXXII., pages 337, 338.)

SARTOR RESARTUS.

which I present be sound or fallacious, it is fair to presume that the cause of truth will be promoted by an honest statement and consideration of them.

The large majority of the original losers by the depredations of the *Alabama* and the other vessels for whose doings Great Britain has been held to be responsible, having been insured, and having recovered indemnity from their insurers, it has been generally admitted that in all such cases the original loser has lost his claim to share in the distribution of the fund. But when it is proposed, in accordance with legal analogies, that the insurer shall succeed to the rights of the original owner of the vessel or cargo destroyed, whose loss he has made good, it is strongly urged in opposition that the effect of this course would simply be to pay over the greater part of the fund to parties who are not in fact losers by those depredations. The insurance companies went into the business of insuring against the risks arising from the rebel cruisers on ordinary business principles. They graduated their premiums according to their ideas of the character of the risk. They intended to fix those premiums at such a rate that the sum total of all the premiums received should be sufficient to pay all the losses and leave a handsome surplus for their own compensation, and most, if not all of them, undoubtedly succeeded in securing a profitable result. If the damage caused by the rebel cruisers had been covered by the ordinary policies, and if that damage had happened suddenly, without warning, and without any opportunity being afforded to insurers to anticipate it and to graduate their premiums accordingly, in such case the insurers would indeed have been losers by the depredations of those vessels; but as the facts really stand, those vessels were to them merely the cause of an *increase of business*, and, it is fair to presume, of a consequent *increase of profits*. Under these circumstances, their *equitable* claim to pocket the greater portion of this large fund would seem to be decidedly weak.

It is urged, however, that if the claims of the insurers are not good in equity, the parties who paid to those insurers the premiums for the war risks are the real losers, and, as such, the legitimate claimants of this fund. But a slight consideration will show that the extra cost of insurance paid by owners of vessels and cargoes was merely an item which served to increase the price of the charter of a vessel and the rate of freight of a cargo, and thereby to increase the cost of an imported cargo when landed on our shores, and to diminish the price which an exporter could afford to pay for a cargo to be sent to foreign countries. Here, at last, however, we seem to find the clue by which to trace to the real sufferers the losses caused by the rebel cruisers. These sufferers were in fact the great mass of the people of the United States, who, by reason of the increased risks to which commerce was subjected, were compelled to pay higher prices for their tea and their coffee and for all other foreign articles, and to accept smaller prices for the grain and flour and other things which they produced or manufactured at home.

If, as the foregoing considerations would seem to show, the great mass of the people of the Union are in fact the parties to whom the loss caused by the rebel cruisers is in the final analysis to be traced, then the fifteen millions paid by Great Britain have already in the United States Treasury reached their proper destination, and need no further distribution. The value of the vessels and cargoes destroyed was, in this view of the matter, properly presented to the Tribunal at Geneva as affording the best evidence and the most accurate measure of the damage inflicted. The money compensation received by the Government on account of that damage ought certainly by every principle of justice and honor to be paid over so far as possible to the parties who actually suffered the damage; but when we endeavor to find out who are to-day the real sufferers on whose shoulders the damage now rests, do we not see that they are not the original owners of the vessels and cargoes destroyed, for they were long ago indemnified by their insurers—they are not those insurers, for their part in the matter was merely that they made a profitable business of collecting in war premiums from the great body of shipowners and merchants the money with which they indemnified the immediate losers—and, finally, they are not the great body of those who paid war premiums, for the reason that for whatever moneys they paid out in such premiums they indemnified themselves out of the pockets of all who bought of them any article they had imported, or sold to them any article which they desired to export? If, then, the loss cannot be traced to any one class or body of men, but appears to have been distributed generally among the people of the Union, the indemnity received for that loss will most nearly reach those who are justly entitled to profit by it if it is left in the National Treasury, to be applied to the payment of the debt which the people of the Union now owe.

U. H. C.

[There are two, and as it seems to us tolerably plain, answers to the above. The first is, that if the underwriters suffered no loss or damage by the Confederate cruisers, we ought never to have brought

their claims before the Geneva Tribunal. Having filed and proved them, and demanded and obtained a large sum of money from Great Britain on account of them, it is clear that it is not now open to us to declare that they had no foundation. Conduct of this kind on the part of private persons is punishable in the criminal courts, and bears a familiar name.

The second answer is, that the loss suffered by the people of the United States through enhanced rates of freight is in large part imaginary and wholly incapable of proof; and that if it occurred to the extent alleged, it was ruled out as "indirect" by the Tribunal at the very opening of the proceedings. Therefore, the money is not applicable to it. But it did not occur. The effect of the *Alabama* raids was not to raise freights generally, but to drive American ships out of the market. The American shipowners were not able to add the war risks to their rates. They had either to suffer the loss, transfer their ships to a foreign flag, or abandon the business. The carrying trade thus fell into foreign hands almost wholly, and was conducted through the war at rates regulated by the ordinary competition between shippers. There may have been some loss suffered by the American people on this score in the coasting trade, but it was very trifling, trade with the Southern ports having been wholly suspended, and that along the New England coast very little exposed. The California steamers perhaps raised their rates, but their war risks hardly amounted to \$15,000,000. In fact, we advise "U. H. C.," and every other honest man, to leave this matter in the hands of "the Essex statesman." There is but one legitimate disposition to be made of the money, and all attempts to wriggle out of it in a cloud of metaphysics only help to damage the national reputation abroad, and injure our credit in the foreign money markets.—ED. NATION.]

## Notes.

**H**URD & HOUGHTON announce, in addition to the 'Egyptian Sketch-Book,' by Charles G. Leland, 'The English Gypsies and their Language,' by the same author. Also, 'Seven Historic Ages: Talks of Kings, Queens, and Barbarians,' by Arthur Gilman.—Porter & Coates will publish 'In the Days of My Youth,' by Amelia B. Edwards; and Lord Derby's version of the *Iliad*, with a biographical sketch of Lord Derby by R. Shelton Mackenzie.—A. D. F. Randolph announces 'The Literary Life,' by Francis Jacox.—We have received from Justus Perthes, the eminent geographical publisher of Gotha, Parts 7, 8, and 9 of the new edition of Spruner's 'Hand-atlas for the History of the Middle Ages and of Modern Times.' We have already, on receipt of the same from B. Westermann & Co., enumerated the maps which they contain, but we are glad to have another opportunity of calling attention to this standard work, which no student of history and no library can afford to be without. These three parts depict the whole of Western Europe at different periods, Part 8 being given up to Germany exclusively.—We are glad to find it stated in the *Publishers' Weekly* that the Messrs. Appleton will collect and publish in one volume the extremely interesting papers on "French Home Life" which have appeared in *Blackwood*, and of which we have more than once made mention in the *Nation*.

—Mr. Herbert Spencer's papers on "Sociology" are, we understand, to appear in the form of a book during the coming autumn, and we may say for them in advance that they will form one of the most important books of the year. They have attracted, as they have appeared, more attention than Mr. Spencer's previous writings, probably because they are on a subject which, to the average reader, is doubly interesting, from the fact of its being a very ancient and, at the same time, very new one; ancient, as it relates to our old and familiar friend, man, and new, because it discusses man, his life and his habits, not in the sentimental or empirical way, but in the cold-blooded fashion with which science now approaches everything. Besides these reasons for greater popularity, there is in a good many persons' minds a lingering feeling, inherited from the generation to which Franklin and his fellow-philosophers belonged, that science and philanthropy together were, in the course of time, to furnish the key to happiness; that with a proper amount of crucibles and retorts, there was no reason why all men should not be as calm and happy as the philosopher who benefited coming ages by inventing the lightning-rod. There was certainly no sociology in those days; scientific men looked forward to a moral through a natural millennium; but their successors, who began the erection of a sociological structure by

the discovery of the general laws of political economy, began to dream of a millennium which should be brought about by the disinterested study of the science of man himself. Most of these dreamers have since awoke to the harsh reality on which Mr. Spencer, in his current article, strikingly dwells—the fact that scientific progress is one thing, and moral progress another; that the cultivation of the mind and the growth of knowledge do not produce necessarily that moral force which, though it may not secure, is certainly essential to, happiness. There is undoubtedly a fallacy, as Mr. Spencer points out, in supposing that good citizens can be turned out of a national educational mill, as they are in theory out of our common schools with us, and as certain reformers wish they should be turned out in England.

—The recent convention of women adjourned without taking any notice of an attack which the accomplished secretaries of that body might well have been directed to throw into the form of a Syllabus of Condemned Propositions, to be used as a guide by the faithful in all lands. We refer to an article which Mr. Orestes Brownson publishes in the last number of *Brownson's Quarterly Review*, under the title of "The Woman Question." It might be formulated in some such way as this: "Whosoever shall say, 'We recognize woman's merits as a religious, as the head of communities of nuns, and as wife, mother, daughter, and domestic friend, for this reason—that in all such relations she is under the direction of male superiors'—let him be anathema." Another article might read thus: "If any man shall say, 'A woman has a thousand ways in which she can annoy her husband, and even her father, and render his home a hell upon earth, and all the time appear to be the victim of his coarseness and brutality, and be regarded by all her neighbors, especially her male neighbors, as a meek, gentle, sweet-tempered, suffering angel'—let that man be anathema." Still a third might be worded thus: "Whosoever shall publicly assert and maintain, or shall privately believe, that 'Neither sex should be set against the other, for each has furnished examples of terrible depravity, and each has peopled heaven with innumerable saints and martyrs, and the one sex is as good as the other, but woman is physically and mentally the weaker vessel'—let him become a castaway, and let his name rot." "Or if any man shall say that under our present laws in most of the States the wife is practically independent of her husband, and if he breaks a tea-cup or a saucer which belongs to her, she can sue him for damages—let him be anathema; and so, also, of any man who shall say that the woman movement 'means free-love, and seeks to substitute what it calls love for duty and obligation.' " All these things, and many more like them, Mr. Brownson says with great downrightness. As, for instance, the following, which is one of many, and picked at random: Include women among the political people, and "they would lose all they owe to man's chivalry, which is not a little, though greatly diminished since women have aspired to lead in popular literature; for women by their writings have deprived the sex of much of its prestige, and womanhood of its sacredness." Mr. Brownson calls names, too, specifying what female reformers have of his own personal knowledge become "coarse and termagantish" since they began to agitate, and what ones have given him personal proofs that their tongues were "harder than many men's fists." But into this part of his field of labor we need not follow him.

—Among recently-printed English works, there are few of any special value. A very special value, indeed, attaches to the 'Bibliotheca Anti-Quakeriana,' by Joseph Smith, himself a Friend, and author six years ago of a bibliography of books written by Quakers, filling some two thousand pages. The present work adds to the alphabetical catalogue biographical notices of the authors, and in certain cases the answers made by Friends. Various tastes are appealed to by 'The Vaudois of Piedmont,' a visit to them, and a sketch of their history, by the Rev. J. M. Worsfold; the 'Life of Louisa de Carvajal,' by Lady Georgiana Fullerton; the 'Autobiography, Memoir, and Letters of Henry F. Chorley,' for many years musical critic of the *Athenaeum*, by H. G. Hewlett; 'Our Journal in the Pacific,' by the officers of H.M.S. *Zealous*; and a desperate sanitarian's production, entitled 'What a House should be *versus* Death in the House,' by William Bardwell.

—Chief among the fall announcements, which now begin to be made plentifully on the other side, is Mr. Mill's *Autobiography*; and in the same line we note the following titles: 'Life of the Right Hon. Spencer Perceval,' by his grandson, Spencer Walpole, comprising Mr. Perceval's correspondence with most of the distinguished persons of his time; Lord William Pitt Lennox's 'Recollections from 1806 to 1873'; 'Essays in Military Biography,' by Col. C. C. Chesney; 'Distinguished Persons in Russian Society,' from the German, by Frances E. Bunnètt; and a 'Dictionary of Artists of the English School,' in all branches, by Samuel Redgrave. The second volume of Mr. John Hosack's 'Mary, Queen of Scots, and her Accusers' will embrace a narrative of events from the death of James V. in 1542 to the death of Mary in 1587. We are to have also the fifth or "Inkerman"



volume of Kinglake's 'Invasion of the Crimea'; 'Incidents in the Sepoy War of 1857-8,' from the private journals of Gen. Sir Hope Grant; 'The Norman People, and their existing Descendants in the British Dominions and the United States'—a work which Dr. Freeman will probably cherish in company with a lecture by Rev. R. Polwhele on 'The English the Descendants of the Ten Tribes'; 'The Fenland, Past and Present: its History, Geography, Geology, Antiquities, etc.,' by S. N. Miller. The fruits of recent German explorations are to be made accessible to the English reader in Dr. Schweinfurth's 'Travels and Discoveries in Central Africa, from 1868 to 1871,' for which Ellen E. Frewer furnishes the translation, and Mr. Winwood Reade (just made the *Times* correspondent for the Ashantee war) the introduction; and Mr. Reade also edits Dr. Gerhard Rohlfs's 'Adventures in Morocco, and Journey South through the Oases of Draa and Tafilet,' while Mr. H. W. Bates condenses and edits the narrative of the Second North-Polar Expedition (1869-70) of the *Germania* and *Hansa*. The North Pole is the subject of 'The Threshold of the Unknown Region,' by Clements R. Markham, editor of *Ocean Highways*; Africa, again, of 'Life, Wanderings, and Labors in Eastern Africa,' by the Rev. Charles New, of the Livingstone Relief Expedition; and pretty familiar ground will be gone over in 'The Pearl of the Antilles, or an Artist in Cuba,' by Walter Goodman, for many years a resident of the island, and 'The Alps of Arabia'—travels through Egypt, Sinai, Arabia, and the Holy Land, by William Charles Maughan. Somewhat fresher will be 'Rough Notes of a Visit to Belgium, Sedan, and Paris, in September, 1870-71,' by John Ashton; 'A Journey to the Mishmee Country,' by T. T. Cooper, who attempted to penetrate Thibet from Assam; and 'A Phenologist among the Todas, or the Study of a Primitive Tribe in South India,' by William E. Marshall. Mr. James Greenwood's 'In Strange Company, or the Note-book of a Roving Correspondent,' gives no hint of the localities visited, but is almost certain to be entertaining.

—Everybody can affect an interest in 'A Handbook of Weather Folk-Lore,' a collection of proverbial sayings in many languages, by Rev. C. Swainson; and 'Economic Geology, or Geology in Relation to the Arts and Manufactures,' by David Page, will recommend itself somewhat widely. Haeckel's 'History of the Natural Creation,' done into English; St. George Mivart's 'Man and Apes, an Exposition of Structural Resemblances and Differences bearing upon Questions of Affinity and Origin'; and Alexander Bain's 'Mind and Body, and the Theories of their Relations,' are so many contributions to the greatest of living scientific discussions, the descent of man. After these it is in order to name Stuart-Glennie's 'West-Eastern Memories; or, Travel and Discussion in the Birth-countries of Christianity with the late Henry Thomas Buckle.' Finally, we may mention Rev. Stopford Brooke's 'Theology in the English Poets'; 'Essays on Freethinking and Plainspeaking,' by Leslie Stephen; 'How to Amuse and Employ our Invalids,' by Mrs. J. P. Powers; 'Etruscan Researches,' by Rev. Isaac Taylor, author of the useful and learned little work on 'Words and Places'; a 'History of Music,' by William Chappell, with a chapter on Hebrew music contributed by Dr. Ginsburg; and a translation of Schiller's 'Don Carlos,' by Dr. Andrew Wood of Edinburgh.

—We single out the announcement of a translation, from the German, of Prof. Vámbéry's 'Central Asia and the Anglo-Russian Question' in order to remark that, in the last number of the *Athenæum* (October 4), there is a letter seriously impeaching his veracity from Mr. Eugene Schuyler, our Secretary of Legation at St. Petersburg. Mr. Schuyler writes from Bokhara under date of August 12, and proposes "to say a few words respecting those writers who are the chief authorities for our knowledge of this country." We omit his remarks on Meyendorf, Burnes, Khanikoff, and other travellers more or less trustworthy; but this is his judgment (as a Russophile, doubtless) of the Russophobic professor:

"As to the books of Vámbéry, the most noted of modern travellers, they are nearly worthless. I have not yet been able to make up my mind whether Vámbéry was actually here or not. There is little, if anything, to be found in his 'Travels' and 'Sketches' which is not told us by other writers, and the errors are so frequent and so great, that it would seem impossible for a man to make them who had seen with his own eyes the things of which he speaks. . . . Most of the Russians who have had the best opportunities of studying these countries, do not believe that Mr. Vámbéry was ever here. . . . Of his more ambitious and scientific books, the less said the better. 'Catagaische Sprachstudien' is utterly useless to the philological student, as it is one mass of error. There is no language bearing the name of Tchagetai, and the language which Mr. Vámbéry endeavors to illustrate, while certainly not what is spoken here at Tashkent or in Kokan, bears more resemblance to the dialect of Kashgar than anything else. . . . The errors in the 'History of Bokhara' are so great and so frequent, especially in those parts (such as the account of the Russian advance in Central Asia) for which abundant materials are accessible, that one is surprised that the writer should have undertaken the work."

Mr. Schuyler fortifies his criticisms by numerous examples which we

lack the space to reproduce here, and which seem likely to make it rather difficult for Vámbéry to reply, as the *Athenæum* invites him to do.

—Our readers will be glad of a suggestive passage which we have chanced on lately in reference to a discussion in our columns (*Nation*, vol. xiv., pp. 392, 421; vol. xv., pp. 9, 27, 44) as to an alleged want in the French language of a word corresponding to the English "listener," meaning listener in a conversation and not *auditeur*, which is accepted as sufficient when a public address is in question. The assertion that in French the obvious word was an equivalent is confirmed indirectly by the extract. The quotation is given in a translation, but *écouter* is undoubtedly the verb which the writer, Mr. N. W. Senior, translates. It is somewhat odd that Mr. Senior, instead of imagining that *écouter* does not translate "listener," starts from the other side, and hesitates to render *causeur* into English. The passage is from the 'Correspondence and Conversations of Alexis de Tocqueville with N. W. Senior, from 1834 to 1859,' vol. ii., p. 171. The journal of the conversations, it will be understood, was kept by Mr. Senior in English. It would be a little more satisfactory to have just this passage in the original; but Mr. Senior, by giving us the French for "converser," furnishes a weighty presumption that there is no difficulty in rendering "listener" by the proper word:

"The fault of her conversation [Mrs. T.—s], I said, "seems to me to be, that while she is repeating one sentence she is thinking of the next, and that while you are speaking to her she is considering what is to be her next topic. I have noticed this fault in other very fluent conversers. They are so intent on the future that they neglect the present."

"It is rather a French than an English fault," said Tocqueville. "The English have more curiosity and less vanity than we have; more desire to hear and less anxiety to shine. They are often, therefore, better *causeurs* than we are. *Le grand talent pour le silence*, or, in other words, the power of listening, which has been imputed to them, is a great conversational virtue. I do not believe that it was said ironically or epigrammatically. The man who bestowed that praise knew how rare a merit silence is."

"May we not owe that merit," I asked, "to our bad French? We shine most when we listen."

"A great talker," I continued, "Montalembert, is to breakfast with us. Whom shall I ask to meet him?"

"Not me," said Tocqueville, "unless you will accept me as one of the chorus," etc.

—We quote another passage from the same work (vol. i., p. 169), in which the conversational resources of the two languages are further illustrated. Here Mr. Senior and his friends seem to have claimed and conceded too easily the superior politeness and capabilities of the French. "Miss," as a word of address, probably wants the grace and dignity of "Mademoiselle" and its agreeableness; but we cannot understand why "Madam" is not a perfectly satisfactory equivalent of "Madame," and "Sir" to our taste is as good a word, if not a better, than "Monsieur." Both Mr. Senior and Madame Anisson appear to have confounded a conversational attitude or manner with linguistic resources, and to have been rather hasty even here in allowing the advantage to the French. The Frenchman, when he addresses us without remembering our name, may offend our dignity less than an Englishman might under the like circumstances, but is he under no need of "catching our eye"?

"We talked of the want in English of words answering to Monsieur, Madame, and Mademoiselle."

"What do you do," said Madame Anisson, "when you want to attract a person's attention?"

"You call to him," I said, "by his name."

"But," answered she, "if you do not know his name, can you address anybody by the word 'mister,' or 'mistress,' or 'miss'?"

"No," I said, "if you do not know the name, you have nothing to do for it but to catch the eye."

"With us," she replied, "the name is very seldom used, except, indeed, by royal personages. The Queen used to address me as Madame Anisson, to show that she knew my name, but in society it would be bad taste."

—A writer in the *Cornhill Magazine* has recently been giving an account of the French periodical press in its early days which is both entertaining and profitable. Among other things that will interest journalists, is the evidence he affords of the venerableness and hoariness of certain usages of our profession which have passed for modern, and even for American. Here, for example, are some "brief jottings" which might readily pass for the production of one of our own countrymen in this city, Cincinnati, Chicago, Louisville, or San Francisco, yet they are from the columns, now more than two hundred years old, of the Parisian *Mercure*, a journal founded by a M. Donneau De Visé so long ago as in 1665. M. De Visé perhaps refers to M. J. B. Rousseau, of whom he was not fond:

"Monsieur J. B. R.— complains that we are blind to his merits. We reply that nature has not endowed us with the faculty of seeing clear through muddy water. But we will resume this discussion when Monsieur R.— has paid his tailor for that maroon coat which he has been sporting so proudly all this month, notwithstanding the two creases in the back, which form its most attractive features."

M. Molière also resembled Rousseau in not being the object of any superstitious veneration on the part of M. De Visé, who was in the habit of asserting in his journal that the Abbé Catin, a personage whom the world has since successfully conspired to forget, was a far abler man than Molière ever thought of being. Thus M. De Visé speaks of the favorite:

"We hear that M. M—— is not happy at our remarks on his last comedy. We pronounced it tasteless; we were wrong. Being plagued with mice, we set a copy of this valuable work near a hole in our flooring; twelve mice came and ate of it, and died in cruel agonies."

We are not informed who the M. "A." of the following "personal item" may have been; but a brief experience of the world is ample to enable one to pronounce it probably destitute of any basis of fact, and intended rather to fill M. "A." with stupefaction and sadness when he read it than to advance any good cause:

"Monsieur A——! Monsieur A——! you have written a Latin treatise on the soul, and a schoolboy copied a paragraph and showed it to his master as his own. He has been whipped for writing nonsense and bad grammar."

Equally malicious, but perhaps not so devoid of truth as the other, is this one, referring to a gentleman whose name has remained unknown for half a dozen generations. Yet one would say that the "personal" had been "set up" yesterday, or kept standing and in constant use ever since 1665:

"A poet who has ruined one publisher, and is fast hurrying a second towards the workhouse, came yesterday and wrote 'Pig' on our door. We thank him for his courtesy in thus dropping his card on us."

Another thing that we learn from these sketches is that, formerly as now, there was a class of literary men whose hearts were lighted up with unholy fires whenever by any chance they encountered a little salutary fault-finding. Writers even of the better class, says our author, "were not slow in taking offence; for it is an unfortunate fact that, from the day when man first put his thoughts to paper, authors have resented any questioning of their talent with curious bitterness. Sallo's criticisms were courteous and temperate, but this made no difference. He was charged with animus, envy, imbecility, and bad taste. When he praised one author, all the others shouted that he was venal, and if he left any one unnoticed, the thing was attributed to an ignoble desire that the scribbler in question should remain ignored." When Sallo, amazed at the mingled ferocity and silliness of the disturbance, attempted to explain that he was not a scoundrel, that his motives were pure and excellent, he was greeted with a general and vociferous shout of derision, and was by-and-by obliged to suspend the publication of his paper, the *Journal des Savants*. In exchange for him, the literary world got the M. Donneau De Visé of whose courtesy and learning we have quoted above some examples which do him justice. We may add that it is in the *Cornhill* for last June and that of September that the reader may find the articles in question, and we believe there are to be more.

#### PROCTOR ON THE MOON.\*

THE author of this work is perhaps the most prolific writer of the day on scientific subjects. Commencing some eight or ten years ago with a book on 'Saturn and his System,' he has continued to write about an octavo volume annually since that time. Many of these volumes must have required an immense amount of reading, research, and calculation. He is also the author of reviews, notices, and essays, which we cannot attempt to enumerate, while hardly a number of the *Monthly Notices* of the Royal Astronomical Society is allowed to appear without two or three contributions from his pen. Looking at such an immense mass of material, the product of a single brain, the first question one would naturally ask is, not whether it is all of the best quality, but whether any of it can possibly be worth reading and study. While it cannot be denied that some of his chapters exhibit marks of hasty preparation, if we compare him with the mass of popular writers on scientific subjects we shall find the general accuracy of his writings to be hardly less remarkable than their number. All his reasoning is that of a thoroughly disciplined mind, possessing a complete understanding of the mathematical relations involved in the problems discussed. As an expounder of scientific truth, his style is well adapted to his subjects. He writes with great clearness, with an enthusiasm amounting almost to impetuosity, and with a fulness of illustration and detail which, though tedious to the scientific reader, will be very welcome to the unscientific one who wishes to understand the subject without that minute study of each sentence necessary in reading the writings of professional investigators. It must be admitted that he sometimes offends the taste of the critical reader by the too free introduction of his own personality, or, we might say, by a kind of head-

long running against himself in the heat of discussion; but this is a fault on which his countrymen look with more leniency than we do.

That Mr. Proctor's works are not in every respect what monographs of the kind ought to be, follows necessarily from the simple fact that it is impossible for any one person to do all the reading, study, and examination necessary to know completely all that has been done in any one department during the time that he devotes to the preparation of a book, and, at the same time, to collate the material and prepare the book. We cannot, therefore, expect to find his works marked either by exhaustive research or by such a fair and complete account of the subjects discussed as will stand the closest scrutiny. To a consciousness of this difficulty on the part of the author himself we have probably to attribute the only deficiency we have noticed in the work before us. A brief account of the researches of mathematicians and astronomers since the time of Newton on the complicated motions of the moon would have formed a very important chapter in a work of this character, replete as it would have been with accounts of what might be claimed as the greatest triumphs of the human intellect. It is, therefore, a little tantalizing to have Mr. Proctor tell us that he cannot avoid dwelling on the singular interest of this history, and yet dispose of the whole of it in a single page, which only tells us what a brilliant history it is. To this we must add that he would hardly be a representative Englishman if he did not write of the labors of his countrymen with greater pleasure than of those of foreigners. If we judge his works by the German standard of thoroughness, we shall have to admit that they exhibit very serious deficiencies in this respect; but if we compare them with the average standard of completeness afforded by the great mass of popular scientific writing in England and America, they will be found remarkable for their thoroughness and general fairness. The fact is, there is too much disposition among scientific men, especially in this country, to look upon the work of "popularizing science" as something altogether beneath the dignity of a professional investigator, and thus to abandon the field to such third-rate men as publishers may chance to pick up. Of course, the result is that the field is worked in such a way that the really first-class men find ample excuse for refusing to enter it in such bad company; and, partial though Mr. Proctor's works may be toward the ideas and labors of his own countrymen, we know of no others to which the English reader can refer for accounts so good of the recent labors of astronomers of all countries.

In the work before us, the defect here alluded to is much less conspicuous than in some of Mr. Proctor's former writings. But we cannot help animadverting upon the addition to the map of the moon of eighty or a hundred names of persons living now or within the present generation, who are thus ranked among the great philosophers and astronomers of all ages. It is strikingly illustrative of what we have just said, that England gets a larger share of these names than all the rest of the world together. The list includes names so insignificant as those of Goldschmidt and Moigno, and a number of others which we dare not pronounce insignificant, because we never before heard of them. Three have especially excited our curiosity: G. Gwilt, J. Gwilt, and Mrs. Jackson Gwilt. As the name of this favored family is not to be found in the Royal Society's 'Catalogue of Scientific Papers,' their first contribution to science must have been made since 1863. There is a sprinkling of Americans, among them Miss Mitchell, but not one of the four whom good judges would probably agree had the first right to be thus honored, namely, Rittenhouse, Bowditch, Bache, and Peirce. We believe that these additions to the lunar map did not originate with Mr. Proctor, but with one of the amateur astronomers of England; still, we must be surprised that he should have been so far from seeing the presumption and absurdity of a private gentleman naming points in the moon after his male and female friends as to include the names in a map without anything to distinguish them from those already recognized by the astronomical world. Of course, such additions cannot be recognized by any scientific authority.

Nearly half the present work is devoted to an explanation of the phenomena presented by the lunar motions, both that around the earth and that on her own axis. This portion of the work is worthy of unqualified praise, combining, as it does, two qualities seldom found together—the utmost exactness in every mathematical detail with the greatest possible clearness in exposition. It is designed to enable the unmathematical reader to go as far into the comprehension and understanding of the manner in which the various forces which act on the moon affect her motions as the most profound mathematician has ever really been able to go. The marvellous accuracy with which the motions of the celestial bodies are predicted from the theory of gravitation is not attained by direct reasoning upon the mode in which the forces act, but by a calculus, in which their effects are summed up in algebraic and numerical formulæ, and in which the connection between the data and the results eludes the clearest insight. Only a few of the largest inequalities have ever been explained without this aid to thought, and these

\* 'The Moon: Her Motions, Aspect, Scenery, and Physical Condition.' By Richard A. Proctor. With three lunar photographs by Rutherford (enlarged by Brothers), and many plates, charts, etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.



few are explained by Mr. Proctor with a profusion of diagrams which are calculated to make the subject quite clear to any one possessing the faculty of mathematical reasoning. The elucidation of the inequality resulting from the parallax of the sun, and of the motion of the lunar perigee, are worthy of especial attention, as these effects of gravitation seem to have escaped the grasp of Newton himself.

The only error of conclusion which we have noticed is one into which others besides Mr. Proctor have fallen. Some years since, Gussew, of Wilna, concluded from measures of some of M. De la Rue's lunar photographs—fallaciously, we think—that the moon was egg-shaped to a degree clearly visible and measurable, the longer diameter and the sharper end being directed toward the earth. This result has been considered as supporting a well-known theory of Hansen, that the centre of gravity of the moon is some forty miles further removed from us than her centre of figure. Really, however, the measurements of Gussew are directly opposed to this theory; the error arising, at least in the present case, from taking the middle point of the longer diameter as the centre of figure, whereas, in Hansen's theory, the centre of figure is supposed to be that of which the motion is derived from actual observation of the moon's limbs—that is, the middle point of the smaller diameters. When we take this point as that of comparison, we find that Gussew's measurements throw the centre of gravity on this side instead of on the other, as required by Hansen.

That class of readers—a very large one, we fear—who do not care to go through long courses of reasoning on the motion of the moon, will probably find the most interesting chapters to be those devoted to the study of the moon's surface. The total dissimilarity between both the geography and the geology of the earth and moon, is quite striking, even with a small telescope. Not only has our satellite neither clouds, air, nor water, so far as the most delicate researches have shown, but the inequalities of her surface are totally different from anything we see here. She is nearly covered with comparatively shallow, circular basins or pits of all sizes, the interiors of which are commonly smooth and flat, with sometimes a mound rising from their centre. The question whether any change whatever can be detected in any part of her surface has received much attention for several years past, without being brought to a definite conclusion. The evidence on both sides is very fully discussed by Mr. Proctor; but he does not venture upon a decisive answer to the question.

Not the least valuable portion of the work are three lunar photographs, enlarged by Mr. Brothers from negatives by Mr. L. M. Rutherford, of New York, who has brought astronomical photography to a state of almost exquisite perfection. We suspect they might have been a little better had Mr. Rutherford enlarged them himself; but as they are, they give the best representation of the telescopic appearance of the moon during her different phases which we remember to have seen. The only noticeable defect is that the dark regions are too dark, and in consequence, the separating line between the bright and dark portions much too jagged in appearance.

#### THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR OCTOBER.

THE lightest article in the October *North American* is by Professor Charles Kendall Adams, who deals with the well-worn subject of Napoleonic universal suffrage. He contrives to make it interesting, however; and this he does by being very concrete in his illustrations. On the question whether France should be considered Louis Napoleon's victim, or his accomplice, Professor Adams is decidedly of opinion that she was victimized, and he proceeds to make his opinion good, by showing from the evidence of MM. Taine, Jules Ferry, Taxile Delord, and Ernest Naville what an imperial plébiscite really was. He narrates at length the story of the annexation of Savoy and Nice under the form of a popular vote; and in the general election of 1863 he finds still more numerous examples of force and fraud applied to the electors. If we forget the disgrace of the affair, it is a history not a little amusing. To begin with, the commissioners of police had their orders to prepare the soil for the good seed. Terror was a principal means of persuasion with these gentlemen, who in all cases obeyed with diligence: "They were not content to enter into the house of the peasant; they penetrated into the deliberative assembly of the municipal council, and openly reproached the members if their zeal appeared to decline." An elector of opposition opinions was observed traversing a village of the Gironde with a gendarme on each side of him: "There," says a commissioner, "there goes a partisan of M. Decazes; that is the way we treat them." Whether or not the gendarmes were addressing themselves to this elector's reason is not stated; but presumably they were. That, at all events, is what their superiors were told to do. General instructions were sent to all the prefects, in which M. De Persigny directed that only to the reason of the electors should appeals be made: "Let the people know," said he, "who are the friends and who

the enemies of the Empire; and let them have full liberty to decide as they choose, but with a full understanding of the cause." When, however, the prefects came to the business of making nominations, it was declared that "no public discussion of the merits of the respective candidates would be allowed." At a previous election, the people, "in the absence of a general direction," had held preliminary meetings, something like our caucuses and conventions, where the candidates announced their principles and submitted themselves for nomination or rejection; but in 1863 "the administration," said the Prefect of the Haute-Loire, will "fill the office of the preliminary meetings. Disinterested in the question, and representing only your collective interests, it will examine, appreciate, and judge of the candidates who are presented." "In all cases," says Professor Adams, "the Emperor chose the prefect, and the prefect after conferring with the Emperor nominated the candidates. This once done, the contest began, if indeed there were any opposition candidate, which was not in all cases certain. The press had mostly been killed or corrupted, so that there remained few journals not subsidized, and as the "office of the preliminary meetings" had been taken on itself by the Government, it was not an easy matter for an opposition candidate to put himself in nomination or to make his fellow-citizens acquainted with his views. He must have recourse to the mails or to placards. But as the prefect, in cases where he mistrusted that a candidate did not love the Emperor, was not delicate about interfering with the ordinary functions of the post-office, the mails afforded the non-official aspirant but a doubtful reliance. For instance, just before the election the suburbs of Grenoble, containing twenty-five thousand inhabitants, were deprived of all postal communication for a whole day and night, it having become necessary to make a vigorous attack upon the opposition candidate at a time when it would be impossible for him to defend himself. Placards were hardly more available than circulars. To begin with, the bill-sticker in France is a Government official, and of course it would require more than ordinary courage and greatness of mind in an official dependent upon the authorities to post the *affiche* of the independent candidate side by side with that of the candidate who loved the Empire. "Both in 1859 and 1863 it happened that candidates were reduced to the actual necessity of arming themselves with pincers and paste-pot and putting up their own placards." In the latter year, one gentleman, a candidate in Bouches-du-Rhône, in company with some faithful adherents, spent the greater part of a night sticking up posters with his own hands. In the morning he had the pleasure of finding every one of his bills covered with Imperial placards. Another gentleman, chafing under a similar misfortune, was going to prosecute, under the statute against mutilating or otherwise defacing posters, but his zeal abated when he learned that there was indeed a statute providing for the punishment of persons mutilating posters, but that all complaints for its violation must be made by the administration. Another method was open to the candidate. If he could find a printer who was free from fear of the prefect on the one hand or of the bishop on the other, and could get his circulars printed, he might employ in their distribution the personal services of his friends and relatives. But the service required the passive fortitude of a martyr and the active energies of a hero: "The distributors were constantly assailed by the jeers and threats, and sometimes even by the blows, of the officials. Commissioners, mayors, gendarmes, *gardes champêtres*, and *gardes des cantonniers* beset them at all points," and occasionally put them into jail until after the election.

Meantime, the Government candidate had everything made easy to him. His posters everywhere decorated the streets. The mails did him faithful service. He could use the telegraph to his heart's content, whereas his opponent never dreamed of trying to send a despatch. The journals which made life a burden to the wife and family of the independent candidate, overflowed with praises of his competitor. The tongue of slander, which wagged unceasingly against the opposition man, was compelled to silence in regard to the Imperialist. If any elector "originated or circulated any report injurious to the official candidate," he was at once arrested, and in vain did the non-official candidate offer bail for him; he was kept close until after the election, or, if set at liberty, was warned not to reappear in that district until after the result of the voting had been made known. When the day of polling arrived, the Imperialist candidate's good fortune underwent no diminution. The mayor perhaps announced to the citizens that, no matter how many votes they cast for the enemy of the administration, that gentleman should nevertheless on no account be returned. Perhaps the "sealed urn" for the reception of the ballots was M. le Maire's pocket, held open for that purpose by a clerk. And that ballots of the right kind should alone get into the urn, it was customary to make the voter, on his way to the ballot-box, pass through a double line of military and civil officials, who narrowly scrutinized his ballot, and, if necessary, substituted the genuine official document for a non-official, and, furthermore, perhaps buffeted him or sneered at him with ferocity. To all this add that about seven times in fourteen the

gentleman depositing the ballot was entirely ignorant of the arts of reading and writing, and that his fund of political knowledge mainly consisted of the belief that the Emperor was good enough to pay the taxes out of his own pocket, and habitually did so. And perhaps, when we have added this, we may be inclined to a conclusion that Professor Adams, in describing Napoleon's method of securing favorable plebiscites, has only pushed one step further back the question whether France was not his accomplice as much as his victim. What government is it that is to represent this people which does not read or write, and which recruits the army of office-holders and soldiers which is used to keep it quiet?

Mr. John Fiske's article, "The Progress from Brute to Man," is a detached chapter of an unpublished book, but it may be intelligently read as it stands. There is a good deal in it—nothing less, for one thing, than an elaborate theory of morals, and an underlying theory, new in some important features, of the genesis of sociality itself. It is very ingenious and plausible, and is set forth with a clearness of statement and argued with a cogency which make it quite a model of its kind. It will, we dare say, surprise and gratify such readers as look to science for a shock to their religious sentiments, and too often do not look in vain. Of another earmark of contemporary science—an arrogance of tone which sometimes may be wholly unconscious of itself, but sometimes is by no means unconscious—the article is not altogether free. For example, Mr. Fiske sets out with the remark that he is unavoidably compelled to make reference to other chapters, as yet unpublished, of the work to which the "Progress from Brute to Man" belongs, but that this will probably make but little difference to the reader: "for he who already understands and accepts the Development Theory will have no difficulty in following the argument; while to him who neither understands nor accepts the Development Theory the argument will have no significance or value whatever." Here, it will be seen, the ground is entirely cut from under the feet of several classes of unfortunates—as, for example, the reader who understanding may yet reject the Development Theory; and the reader who, understanding it, may hold it in provisional acceptance only; and the reader who appreciates the value and significance of Mr. Fiske's admirable arguments and illustrations, but does not yet go the length of regarding the Development Theory as an absolute base of certitude. A remark of this kind is not a great matter perhaps; but, if no more, it is polemically ill-judged. It is a piece of controversial maladroitness, like that of saying, as Mr. Fiske said the other day in controverting some of Mr. Agassiz's opinions, that he himself, for his part, had become thoroughly convinced of the soundness of the Development Theory "thirteen years ago," when Mr. Fiske, still fortunately a young man, may have been eighteen or twenty years old. Correct opinions on important matters are formed and held at earlier ages than eighteen or twenty; but in controversy the fact is usually suppressed that it was at eighteen or twenty that one reached given philosophical conclusions as to the true solutions of the most baffling problems. But these are small blemishes in an excellent piece of work which will receive and well repay attention.

Besides these articles the *North American Review* contains also a paper entitled "The Meaning and Causes of Value," by Mr. Albert S. Bolles; another with the title of "Our Electoral Machinery," by an anonymous writer, who shows a great deal of a sort of middle-aged good sense; another by Mr. J. T. Bixby, reviewing Taine's "On Intelligence"; another on Miss Stephen's "Service of the Poor"; and, finally, half a dozen critical notices of books. Of these latter the longest are of Cherbuliez's "Meta Holdenis" and Mr. Furness's "Variorum Macbeth," which is praised with warmth by a writer evidently at home with his subject. As regards the other essays which we have mentioned, very little occurs to us to remark of any one of them. Mr. Bolles's is a short lesson in rudimentary political economy, and usefully insists on the need of clear definitions; and "Our Electoral Machinery" discusses the proposed change in the electoral colleges, and is a mine of facts and arguments which will be worth having when Senator Morton's Committee reports next winter.

#### RECENT NOVELS.\*

MISS YONGE'S "Pillars of the House" is a novel which will get its warmest welcome in leisurely parsonage houses in England and this country; or perhaps in leisurely houses where clergymen are in even higher consideration than they are beneath their own roofs. Leisurely the houses

\* "The Pillars of the House; or, Under Wode, Under Rode." By Charlotte M. Yonge. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.

"The Waving O'it, A Novel." New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1873.

"Penruddock." By Hamilton Aldé. Boston: James H. Osgood & Co. 1873.

"Miriam Montfort, A Novel." By the Author of "The Household of Bonverie." New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.

"Quixstar." By the Author of "Blindpits." New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.

Arthur Bonnicastle. An American Novel. By J. G. Holland. With twelve full-page illustrations by Mary A. Hallock. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.

will have to be, for the two solid volumes of the book contain no less than twelve hundred octavo pages—twelve hundred and twenty, to be exact—and some of them are not exciting at all. The story is of the struggling family of a Church of England curate. He is a scholar, a gentleman by birth, and a man of all the virtues, including the clerical leporine virtue of becoming the possessor of offspring to the number of thirteen in the space of sixteen years, at the end of which time he dies of pulmonary consumption, and leaves his widow and children nearly destitute. They are not only almost destitute of money; they are whelmed in a flood of appalling calamity. On the day of the father's death the mother gives birth to twin children, one of whom turns out to be blind, and both of whom the father baptizes at his bedside in a heartrending scene; the mother has just previously fallen down some steps, and so injured herself that she becomes imbecile in mind, and not long after dies; the eldest son, who is but sixteen, and who is henceforth the head of the house, nearly breaks his own heart and the hearts of some of his more frivolous relatives and friends by taking up the trade of a printer instead of remaining a gentleman and becoming a clergyman; the eldest daughter, who must act as the mother of the other dozen, is but fifteen years of age, and nearly overborne by her anxieties; one of the other daughters is a cripple, and grows by-and-by to be hysterical; several of the younger boys develop a good degree of genuine British brutality, which makes them a heavy handful for their eldest brother, who with difficulty restrains himself from "licking" Master Fulbert two or three times a day; a young American, a Master Travis, whom a grievous accident throws into the house, proves at first to be a very bad fellow, who vulgarly calls Lance a "little coon," and teaches Fulbert to shake the dice, which, *more Americano*, Master Travis carries about in his pocket; quarter-day often finds the young housekeepers with only sevenpence or thereabouts on the favorable side of the balance-sheet, while at the same time Lance wants shoes and Geraldine some carriage-riding. Altogether few families since the days of the house of Atreus can have been "down on their luck," as Felix would say, or more nearly "gone coons," as the slangy young Travis would say, than Felix, Wilmet, Alda, Edgar, Geraldine, Clement, Fulbert, Lancelot, Robina, Angela, Bernard, Stella Eudora, and Theodore Benjamin Underwood. They all come out of their troubles, however, Travis included, and emerge into prosperity and peace. We may, as well as in any other way, give a notion of the contents of the book by quoting a passage which describes the baptism of this same Travis, who has not been brought to that point in his Christian duty until after hard work on his own part and that of others, nor without some dangerous and almost fatal backslidings. On this side of the water he had enjoyed few religious privileges, his father worshipping money, despising the Old Country and its religion, teaching his son also to despise both, "guessing" and "calculating," and in general behaving in all respects like a vulgar materialist, as he is. The son is, to be sure, a rather queer sort of "Yankee." His mother was the daughter of a Mexican woman (with Aztec blood in her veins), who had married an English atheist; and his father is the son of an emigrated English attorney of no good repute, who came upon her in Mexico. But, whatever his nativity, Fernando's life in Mexico and Texas has familiarized him with the worst variety of Southern slaveholding life, and all this, together with his inherited Aztec tendency to play games of chance, make of him a very doubtful subject indeed. He burns down a hotel, for instance, thus causing the death of three persons; he dislikes study; he is sceptical, and so on. Still, under the teaching of Felix, Lance, and Mr. Audley, he becomes a Christian by a process which Miss Yonge does not pursue in detail, she being stronger in church decoration and Christian feeling than in theology, and he is thus baptized:

"He had not in the least realized the effect of the interior of a church. St. Oswald's was a very grand old building, with a deep chancel a good deal raised, seen along a vista of heavy columns and arched vaults, lighted from the clerestory, and with a magnificent chancel-arch. The season was Lent, and the coloring of the decorations was therefore grave, but all the richer, and the light coming strongly in from the west window, immediately over the children's heads, made the contrast of the bright sunlight and of the soft depths of mystery more striking, and to an eye to which everything ecclesiastical was absolutely new, the effect was almost overwhelming. That solemnity and sanctity of long centuries, the peaceful hush, the grave beauty and grandeur, almost made him afraid to breathe, and Cherry sat by his side with her expressive face composed into the serious but happy look that accorded with the whole scene. . . . Then came the low swell of the organ, another new sensation to one who had only heard opera music; then the approaching sound of the voices. Geraldine gave him the book open at the processional psalm, and the white-clad choir passed by, one of the first pair of choristers being Lance, singing with all his might, and that merry monkey-face full of a child's beautiful happy reverence. And again

"By-and-By. An Historical Romance of the Future." By Edward Maitland. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.

"May." By Mrs. Oliphant. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.

"Hester Morley's Promise." By Herba Stretton. New York: Dodd & Mead. 1873.

"A Simpleton." By Charles Reade. New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.



could be recognized Felix, Mr. Audley, Mr. Bevan, all whom the poor sick stranger had come to love best, all to his present perception glorified and beautiful. They had told him it would be all faith and no sight, but he seemed to find himself absolutely within that brighter, better sphere to which they belonged, to see them walking in it in their white robes, to hear their songs of praise, and to know whence came that atmosphere that they carried about with them, and that he had felt when it was a riddle to him."

Evidently this is a story which has several of the elements necessary for pleasing and edifying a great number of persons. We may remark that some American readers will perhaps object to seeing in the hands of their young people a book in which the distinction between the "cad" and his fellow-citizens of other varieties is drawn with so great sharpness, and in which "trade" causes so much anguish to some of the personages. But we should say that the class of people which the author had in view will think that the good qualities of the story far more than balance its bad. The boys are, on the whole, manly boys, the girls womanly girls; both in the boys and the girls there is no small spice of humanity; there is ritualism to the extent of a Sister Constance—Lady Mary Somerville that was—who goes out nursing, but it is not obtrusive; there is, for the younger readers, fractionousness made odious, and good behavior made honorable; and for the elder there is a certain quantity of love-making; there are piety and pious observances, as ordered by the Church of England; and, as we have said, we may pronounce 'The Pillars of the House' a book for which many parents and children of the Episcopalian communion will be grateful.

An exceedingly interesting novel is 'The Wooing O't,' a recent addition to the Leisure Hour Series. It tells the story of a young girl who, at the beginning of the story, is living with her uncle and aunt, but who leaves them to take the place of companion to a woman who has been boarding with them. In this new position she sees more of the world, she is fallen in love with, and finally, when her protector marries, she finds another opening with a rich and eccentric young woman, and so the story runs on to its happy ending. Its plot is very slight, and certainly is far from being the main merit of the novel; that lies rather in the delicacy of the humor, the careful and accurate drawing of the different characters, and the general innocent and unaffected style of narration. The way in which the vulgar, good-natured Mrs. Berry is described is worthy of comparison with Miss Austen's best work. Her kindness to Maggie from the first, her constant amiability, her petty economies, her unfeeling vulgarity, are admirably drawn; whenever she speaks it is easy to catch her peculiarities, but these are never caricatured, never turned to ridicule. Then John, Maggie's rough but kind-hearted cousin, with his noisy ways and indescribable conceit, is drawn with quite as much skill. Especially good is the description of the scene between him and Miss Grantham, where the reader has to give his sympathy to Maggie, who is listening to them both with great dread, lest John, the irrepressible, should blurt out some alarming speech. Then, too, Lord Torchester, and his evangelically-disposed mother, are admirably described. In short, this novel deserves very warm commendation for the perfect healthiness of its tone, for the keen and good-natured observation which it shows, and the sensible sympathy the writer bestows on all her characters. It is so good in many ways that the reader who puts it down may be perfectly satisfied with it, and yet not know how clever it is, but if it be compared with the numberless other attempts at doing the same thing, the difference becomes clear enough. There are but few novels of this kind which deserve a higher place than this, and it ought to go on the same shelf with Mrs. Oliphant's 'Miss Marjoribanks,' Mrs. Gaskell's 'North and South,' and, possibly, Miss Thackeray's stories.

Another good novel is 'Penruddock,' by Hamilton Aidé, whose earlier stories gave proof of considerable ability. This one is written as an autobiography, a form of which the author is rather fond, and sets before us the youth and early manhood of an Englishman who, for certain reasons which are duly given, leaves his home and makes the best way he can in the great world. He is an honest, simple-hearted young fellow, a favorite with all except his own relatives, but his enthusiasm and over-confidence in others as well as in himself are continually getting him into hot water. All his deeds, the most innocent as well as those which are rather dubious, are harshly judged, the ears of the girl he loves are filled with calumnies about him, and his life is by no means an easy one. A German lady, the Baroness D'Arnheim, who is ten or a dozen years older than he, is a kind friend and counsellor to him, but this fact is not ignored by a censorious world, and very little good comes of it. In her character we cannot help thinking that the author has failed, but, on the whole, he has succeeded in writing a very readable novel, which we trust gives an exaggerated representation of the improprieties of London society.

Our praise of 'Miriam Monfort' must be cooler. The opening scenes are in Philadelphia, in a "gloomy-looking gray stone edifice, with massive granite steps (imported at great cost, before the beautiful white-marble quarries had

been developed which abound in the vicinity of, and characterize the dwellings of, that rare and perfect city)." The heroine is unlike most other heroines in being cataleptic; she is like them in being on board of a ship that is burned at sea; and as a part of the persecutions to which we are all so liable, she is unjustly confined in a private mad-house. The further complications we can leave the reader to unravel. A few lines will show the sort of book it is:

"In the gray of a foggy February morning the duel was fought, and Captain Wentworth fell, as it was at first thought, mortally wounded.

"At the request of his excellent physician, Dr. Durand, when the watchers were exhausted and vigilance was all-essential in his case, I accepted, rather than proposed to take, the part of watcher for one night, in company with my devoted friend and coadjutor, Edward Vernon, and discovered in my anguish, and in my power over his distracted senses, my so-far hidden gift of magnetism.

"Insomniolency was destroying him; opiates had been tried in vain to compose him; and now, under my waving fingers and straining will, he slept the sweet, refreshing, magnetic slumber. He lived, some were pleased to say, and among others his physician, through my agency—my admirable nursing—for none, save Vernon, ever knew the secret of my sway. We became engaged during his convalescence, simply, quietly, unostentatiously."

But this is mild compared with some other passages, especially those in which Southerners, and especially Southerners in love, get talking.

A novel which contains a great deal of cleverness rather than a clever novel is 'Quixstar.' It gives an account of many of the inhabitants of a little Scotch village, describing every one with intelligence and humor. The writer is a very sharp-eyed person, who manages to see into the secret hearts of many characters, and who puts them before us very clearly. The story is very simple, even, it might seem, disproportionately so to the thoroughness with which the people are described, and there is something cloying in the continual flow of epigram, and something disappointing in the way in which what would, in more skilful hands, be the material of many novels, is lost sight of by the author.

Dr. Holland's 'Arthur Bonnicastle' reminds one of a dilution of Mr. George MacDonald's novels. It is a story told autobiographically, and beginning with the hero's earliest recollections. His father was a shiftless, unsuccessful New Hampshire farmer, who, under stress of poverty, takes himself and family to the town of Bradford, where he is employed as carpenter. Arthur, the hero, is then a little boy of ten, and by his guileless talk, which to the profane would seem, to use the mildest phrase, priggish if it were not so unintentionally blasphemous, he fascinates a wealthy lady living in the town. She adopts him, and Arthur enjoys to the full his new position. He is sent to a model school where the teacher is "only the biggest and best boy, and the accepted president of the establishment," where all the responsibility is thrown upon the boys. After leaving this school, and while studying at home, there is a revival in the village, and Arthur is affected by it. This does its work toward making him insufferable: he reproves his elders, he becomes a well-known speaker in the cause of religion; but soon he becomes a backslider, and enters college. There his wealth exposes him to temptation in the shape of a visit to New York. He spends the Christmas vacation there, he drinks wine, and on New Year's Day he oversteps the bounds of sobriety. But repentance follows swift, and he never repeats his fault. In time, a very thin veil of concealment is taken down, and it turns out that the real heir to all the wealth which Arthur had supposed would be his is his best friend Henry, who had fallen in love with Arthur's sister Claire. Arthur declines an invitation to go to Europe, tells Henry of the change his discovery makes in the plans of both, and studies law. Finally, of course, he marries the choice of his heart. What the novel undertakes to show is, apparently, the injurious effects of wealth and self-indulgence on the young. Arthur is always uneasy about his position and half-ashamed of the inferior social position of his father, the carpenter, but when he finds he is to be poor he sets to work and earns a livelihood. But the dangers of the wealthy are not undue prominence in revivals, and poor Arthur's little frigid temptations are hardly more than the outbreathing of his petty, priggish nature. He is the most colorless hero ever known. In fact, the whole book, while written with the best intentions in the world, is too pallid, too lifeless to deserve praise.

To such of us as bemoan the present, and look forward to the time when the world will be free of its faults and cruelties, we would commend 'By-and-By: an Historical Romance of the Future.' The author undertakes to foretell the condition of the world some centuries hence, "when our own country, at least, shall have made such advance in the solution of the problems which harass the present, and shall be so far relieved from all disabling artifices, social, political, and religious, that individuals will be able, without penalty or reproach, to fashion their lives according to their own preferences, the sole external limitation being that imposed by the law of equal liberty for all." Reformers will find that some impor-

tant changes are to be made; for instance, marriage, as we understand it, will soon cease to exist, and it will be replaced by what are amusingly called three classes of marriage, which it is not necessary to explain here. The result will be that "to have already proved her qualifications as a tender and judicious mother came to be regarded by men of sense as a woman's strongest recommendation for marriage; and the question they asked was not, 'Is she already a mother?' but 'What sort of a mother is she?'" And yet, by a singular contradiction, the ballot will still be denied women, who will nevertheless long for it, but who may expect, even in that wise future, no better treatment than Miss Anthony received last summer when she tried to vote. So at least we judge from the following extract:

"Down here with us, should a woman approach the polls, the official, being a male, and constituting himself a judge of dress and fashion, as well as of nomenclature, would say, 'By the character of your dress, or the termination of your name, I adjudge you to be a woman. You must therefore retire. The privilege of voting is not accorded to those who are thus attired or styled.'"

This would seem to imply the success of the Woodhull wing of reformers. The worst thing about the future, if we may take 'By-and-By' for a fair sample, will be its novels.

We are late in speaking of Mrs. Oliphant's 'May,' but those who have been disappointed by her 'Innocent' can be recommended to turn back to the earlier novel. This lady has certainly a remarkable gift for story-telling, and, whenever she succeeds, she is remarkable for her agreeable humor, her intelligent, if not over-subtle, observation, and her wise sympathy with what is good in the world. She never preaches sermons directly to us, but every one of her novels leaves a strong impression on the reader's mind of the kindness of her heart, and that life is not so hopeless a thing after all as some novelists make out. In this novel, she has caught admirably the prominent traits of a foolish woman in Matilda, and she draws a most amusing but perfectly unmalicious picture of the way in which she fascinates a man who is in other respects sensible. Then, too, the good-for-nothing Fanshawe is well described. In fact, both of these characters are rather better drawn than the heroine. This is not a novel to disturb one's sleep, but it is, to our thinking, a successful story, which is well suited to give its readers a considerable amount of innocent pleasure.

A melancholy, somewhat morbid story is 'Hester Morley's Promise,' by Hesba Stretton. An analysis of the plot would sound like that of a sensational novel brought into the service of morality and right-doing. It gives an account of the penitential suffering of a man who begins life by running away with his neighbor's wife, and who is punished years afterwards by falling in love in vain with her step-daughter. This is not an attractive subject, and the book is filled with deep gloom; but in spite of working with such depressing material, Miss Stretton is skilful enough to deserve commendation for her descriptions of dull village life and the narrow-mindedness of bigots. The whole tone of the book, as we have said, is morbid; but there are many novel-readers who prefer morbidness.

The moral idea of Mr. Charles Reade's new novel, 'A Simpleton,' which would be very pretty if it were not very absurd, is the development of a

girl's character into that of a woman through adversity. Rosa Lusignan, bred up to luxury and extravagance, marries Dr. Christopher Staines, brought up to poverty and hard work, after an agonizing prelude, during which she falls ill of a hemorrhage, owing to tight stays, and indirectly to the qualified dismissal of Dr. Staines by her father. Dr. Staines cures without any recourse to the materia medica, and then marries his patient. During the engagement, however, she had innocently flirted with one Reginald Falcon, a good-for-nothing gentleman with large debts, himself engaged to a good girl of poor but honest parentage, whom he ruthlessly tortures (when he is not borrowing money of her) by his attentions to other women. Rosa of course rejects, and thereby mortally wounds the vanity of this young gentleman, and he vows vengeance. Incredible adventures ensue. The Staines establishment is very expensive, and Mrs. Staines's efforts at economy, though magnificent in intention, are not successful in practice. Indeed, she spends every farthing they have and a good deal more, and the doctor is obliged to accept an offer as travelling physician to a young nobleman, Tadcaster by name, who must be taken a long sea-voyage. The moment of parting is terrible, and Rosa is left behind to cherish the memory of her husband, and become, by the natural development of her charming character, a matron of an unusually delightful sort. Meantime, the doctor is lost overboard, and saves himself by clinging to a raft. The crew of the raft consists of a corpse with a belt full of diamonds. The doctor goes mad, is picked up, and carried ashore still mad. He is placed in an asylum, and after a time is recognized by Mrs. Reginald Falcon, the good girl referred to before having married Reginald and obliged him, much against his will, to go with her to South Africa, where she with her brother carries on an extensive farm, and coddles her worthless husband, whom, notwithstanding his vices, she devotedly loves. This brother is the same brother whose life Dr. Staines had saved on a memorable occasion in England. Christopher gradually recovers his wits, and he and Reginald Falcon do some very adventurous diamond-digging and travelling together; but the wicked Falcon, as soon as he gets hold of some money, deserts the African party altogether, and hurries to England, where he indulges in needless villany, and comes very near marrying Rosa, under pretence that her husband is dead, nothing of course being known of the existence of his own wife. It all ends happily however, leaving Rosa and the Doctor in each other's arms, and Falcon howling—to use a favorite word of the author's—outside the window, through which he has just been pitched. To any one who knows Mr. Reade's other books, there is nothing in this story, because it merely contains a number of his old characters, who are made to go through new adventures. There is a strong resemblance between Rosa and the heroine of 'Love Me Little, Love Me Long,' Dr. Staines is a later medical and scientific equivalent of Mr. Eden, the wife of Reginald Falcon is remarkably like the girl who figures in 'Put Yourself in His Place,' and we even catch a glimpse of our old friend Jacky the savage once more. We confess to a liking for much that Mr. Reade has written; the chief difficulty with his later stories like this 'Simpleton' and the 'Wandering Heir' is that there is a little too much pathos and adventure to the square inch.

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## THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

OCTOBER 20, 1873.

WE have no change to report in the situation of affairs since last week.

On Monday the National Trust Company resumed business, and thus far the demands upon the institution have been less than was anticipated by the officers of the Company. We hear nothing with regard to the efforts of the Union Trust Company to resume, further than that it is understood to be the intention to reopen for business at an early day, with an enlarged capital of \$1,000,000, making the new capital \$2,000,000. A meeting will be held today, when the matter will probably be decided.

Reports from the interior indicate that in all the Western cities there is an unusually large amount of currency in the different banks and moneyed institutions. This is especially true with regard to Chicago and Cincinnati. In this city legal tenders and National bank currency continue to command a premium of from  $\frac{1}{4}$  to  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. over certified checks. The savings-banks have released none of the currency so effectually locked up by them some weeks since. The thirty days' notice which the savings-banks required from their depositors before paying over deposits, will expire this week; and it is probable that in case the demands from their depositors should be light and the banks should have no further use for their hoardings, the latter may decide to put the currency again in circulation through a repurchase of their Government bonds, which they can do at lower prices than those at which they were sold.

One of the most serious drawbacks felt during the past week was the difficulty of getting remittances from Boston, Philadelphia, and other cities. The New York banks are obliged to refuse taking and crediting up drafts or checks on other points, as the out-of-town banks have notified them of the impossibility of their making any returns whatever for the present. In Boston,  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. premium was paid during the week for New York funds, while in Philadelphia the premium was still higher.

Money has been rather easier with the brokers, who have been able to supply their wants by borrowing from one another at 7 per cent. per annum to  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. per diem. The ruling rate, if we may so call it, was from  $\frac{1}{3}$  to  $\frac{1}{16}$  and interest.

The Bank of England rate of discount was raised on Tuesday from 5 per cent., at which it had been standing, to 6 per cent., and on Saturday, at a special meeting of the directors, the rate was further advanced, and now

stands at 7 per cent. This action of the Bank was, of course, taken for the purpose of preventing further shipments of gold to this country. Advices from London state that the advance in the discount rate was not unexpected, and no stringency in the market has followed thus far in consequence.

On Monday the stock market opened very weak, and continued so, with a sharp decline in prices, until Wednesday, which carried down New York Central to 82, Lake Shore to 57 $\frac{1}{2}$ , Harlem to 100, Rock Island to 81, Wabash to 32 $\frac{3}{4}$ , Western Union to 45, and Pacific Mail to 25. In the afternoon prices recovered rapidly, Lake Shore rising 10 per cent., New York Central 7 per cent., Western Union 9 per cent., Rock Island 6 $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., and Harlem 6 $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., other stocks sharing in the improvement. The market since Wednesday has continued to improve, with a good demand for stocks from outside parties, who of course buy for cash and take the securities away with them.

The half-yearly dividend on New York Central was promptly paid on the day on which it was due at the office of Messrs. Duncan, Sherman & Co.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending October 18:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	88 $\frac{1}{4}$ 91	82 $\frac{1}{2}$ 88 $\frac{1}{2}$	82 87 $\frac{1}{2}$	86 $\frac{1}{2}$ 90	88 $\frac{1}{2}$ 90 $\frac{1}{2}$	88 89 $\frac{1}{2}$	95,800
Lake Shore	65 $\frac{1}{2}$ 69 $\frac{1}{2}$	59 $\frac{1}{2}$ 66 $\frac{1}{2}$	57 $\frac{1}{2}$ 67	65 70	67 $\frac{1}{2}$ 70	66 $\frac{1}{2}$ 68 $\frac{1}{2}$	38,700
Eric.	46 46 $\frac{1}{2}$	44 $\frac{1}{2}$ 46	44 $\frac{1}{2}$ 46 $\frac{1}{2}$	46 $\frac{1}{2}$ 47	46 $\frac{1}{2}$ 46 $\frac{1}{2}$	44 $\frac{1}{2}$ 45 $\frac{1}{2}$	17,600
Do. pfd.	67 67	65 $\frac{1}{2}$ 67	60 60	63 63	63 $\frac{1}{2}$ 67 $\frac{1}{2}$	63 $\frac{1}{2}$ 67 $\frac{1}{2}$	.....
Union Pacific	18 $\frac{1}{2}$ 19 $\frac{1}{2}$	16 $\frac{1}{2}$ 18 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$ 18 $\frac{1}{2}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$ 19 $\frac{1}{2}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$ 19 $\frac{1}{2}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$ 19 $\frac{1}{2}$	39,000
Chl. & N. W.	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ 42 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{2}$ 40	32 $\frac{1}{2}$ 39	39 40 $\frac{1}{2}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ 42 $\frac{1}{2}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ 40 $\frac{1}{2}$	21,800
Do. pfd.	63 64 $\frac{1}{2}$	60 62	60 62 $\frac{1}{2}$	64 66	67 67	.....	4,100
N. J. Central	90 $\frac{1}{2}$ 90 $\frac{1}{2}$	90 $\frac{1}{2}$ 90	90 91	91 $\frac{1}{2}$ 91 $\frac{1}{2}$	91 $\frac{1}{2}$ 91 $\frac{1}{2}$	90 91	1,200
Rock Island	89 91	80 $\frac{1}{2}$ 88 $\frac{1}{2}$	81 87 $\frac{1}{2}$	87 90	89 $\frac{1}{2}$ 92 $\frac{1}{2}$	90 $\frac{1}{2}$ 91 $\frac{1}{2}$	25,800
Mil. & St. Paul	29 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	28 29 $\frac{1}{2}$	24 25	25 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{2}$ 30	31 $\frac{1}{2}$ 30	14,000
Do. pfd.	54 $\frac{1}{2}$ 55	52 52	50 52	54 54 $\frac{1}{2}$	53 53	.....	2,200
Wabash	42 $\frac{1}{2}$ 44 $\frac{1}{2}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$ 42 $\frac{1}{2}$	32 $\frac{1}{2}$ 39 $\frac{1}{2}$	34 $\frac{1}{2}$ 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 43 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ 43 $\frac{1}{2}$	49,400
D. L. & W.	89 89 $\frac{1}{2}$	83 88	80 85 $\frac{1}{2}$	87 88 $\frac{1}{2}$	89 90	89 89 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,400
O. & M.	24 $\frac{1}{2}$ 27 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$ 26	21 $\frac{1}{2}$ 25	24 $\frac{1}{2}$ 26 $\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$ 27 $\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$ 27	89,700
G. C. & I. C.	20 $\frac{1}{2}$ 21 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$ 20 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 21	21 $\frac{1}{2}$ 22 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$ 22 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$ 22	13,700
W. U. Tel.	58 62 $\frac{1}{2}$	49 $\frac{1}{2}$ 57 $\frac{1}{2}$	45 54 $\frac{1}{2}$	53 $\frac{1}{2}$ 58 $\frac{1}{2}$	58 $\frac{1}{2}$ 59 $\frac{1}{2}$	58 $\frac{1}{2}$ 57 $\frac{1}{2}$	187,800
Pacific Mail	31 $\frac{1}{2}$ 33 $\frac{1}{2}$	23 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	25 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 34 $\frac{1}{2}$	32 $\frac{1}{2}$ 34 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{2}$ 33 $\frac{1}{2}$	31,400

Gold has remained steady during the week, with no specially interesting features to notice. The range in fluctuations was as follows:

	Opening.	Highest.	Lowest.	Closing.
Monday	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$
Tuesday	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$
Wednesday	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$
Thursday	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	107 $\frac{1}{2}$	108
Friday	107 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	107 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$
Saturday	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$

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